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**FACEBOOK USE AND ONLINE POLITICAL PARTICIPATION
AMONG YOUTH IN NIGERIA: THE MODERATING ROLE OF
POLITICAL INTEREST**

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**DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY
UNIVERSITI UTARA MALAYSIA
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Abstrak

Facebook boleh meningkatkan penyertaan dalam talian pemuda yang tidak bertanggungjawab. Walau bagaimanapun, hanya sedikit kajian lepas menunjukkan penggunaan Facebook untuk penyertaan politik dalam talian (OPP) dalam kalangan belia. Objektif kajian ini adalah untuk mengenal pasti tahap penyertaan politik dalam talian dalam belia di Nigeria, untuk menentukan perbezaan jantina dalam penyertaan, untuk mengkaji sama ada terdapat hubungan yang signifikan antara penggunaan Facebook, integratif sosial, integratif peribadi, afektif, eskapis, keamatan, persepsi dan OPP. Kajian ini juga menganalisis peranan penyederhanaan kepentingan politik (PI) dalam hubungan ini. Satu tinjauan telah dijalankan ke atas 473 pelajar sarjana muda di Kaduna State University (KASU), Nigeria. Soal selidik yang telah disahkan diguna pakai untuk mengumpul data yang dianalisis menggunakan *Partial Least Square-Structural Equation Modelling* (PLS-SEM). Hasil kajian menunjukkan bahawa terdapat penyertaan politik dalam talian yang signifikan dalam belia di Facebook. Penggunaan Facebook dari segi kognitif, integratif sosial, afektif, eskapis, dan persepsi ke arah penyertaan politik dalam talian di kalangan belia, kecuali bagi hubungan antara penggunaan integratif peribadi dan keamatan Facebook. Kepentingan politik menyederhanakan hubungan di antara penggunaan kognitif Facebook, integratif sosial, persepsi dan penyertaan politik dalam talian. Terdapat perbezaan yang signifikan antara lelaki dan wanita dalam OPP. Kajian ini memberikan pengetahuan berasaskan empirikal mengenai penggunaan Teori Kegunaan dan Kepuasan (UGT) dan Model Kesukarelawanan Sivik (CVM) bagi meneroka penggunaan Facebook sebenar, keamatan dan persepsi untuk penyertaan politik dalam talian. Ia juga membentangkan model berasaskan UGT untuk memahami cabaran penggunaan Facebook untuk penyertaan politik dalam talian. Nilai kesahan dan kebolehpercayaan instrumen kajian yang boleh diterima mengukuhkan kesesuaiannya untuk diadaptasi atau digunakan dalam konteks lain. Dapatan mengenai persepsi Facebook dan penggunaan Facebook oleh belia untuk penyertaan politik boleh membantu pemegang taruh politik untuk mempertingkatkan penggunaan Facebook dalam aktiviti mereka.

Kata kunci: Facebook, Penyertaan politik dalam talian, Belia, Nigeria.

Abstract

The Facebook can increase political participation of the politically apathetic youth online. However, little evidence were shown from research on the use of Facebook for online political participation (OPP) among youth. The objectives of this study are to identify the level of online political participation among youth in Nigeria, to determine gender difference in the participation, to examine whether there is a significant relationship between their Facebook usage in terms of cognitive, social integrative usage, personal integrative usage, affective usage, escapist usage Facebook intensity, Facebook perception and OPP. It also analyses the moderating role of Political Interest (PI) in the relationships. A survey was conducted on 473 undergraduate youth in Kaduna State University (KASU), Nigeria. A validated questionnaire was used to collect data which was analyzed using *Partial Least Square-Structural Equation Modelling* (PLS-SEM). The result revealed that there is a significant level of online political participation among youth on Facebook. The Facebook cognitive usage, social integrative usage, affective usage, escapist usage and perception leads to OPP among youth, except for the relationship of personal integrative usage and Facebook intensity. Political interest (PI) moderates the relationship between Facebook cognitive usage, social integrative usage, perception and OPP. There is a significant difference between male and female youth in OPP. The study provides an empirical based knowledge on the Uses and Gratification Theory (UGT) and Civic Voluntarism Model (CVM) for exploring actual Facebook usage, intensity and perception for OPP. It also presents a model based on the UGT for understanding challenges to the Facebook use for online political participation. The acceptable validity and reliability values of the study instrument reinforce its suitability for its adaption or adoption in another context. The results on Facebook perception and Facebook usage by the youth for political participation might help political stake-holders to consider using Facebook in their activities.

Keywords: Facebook, Online political participation, Youth, Nigeria

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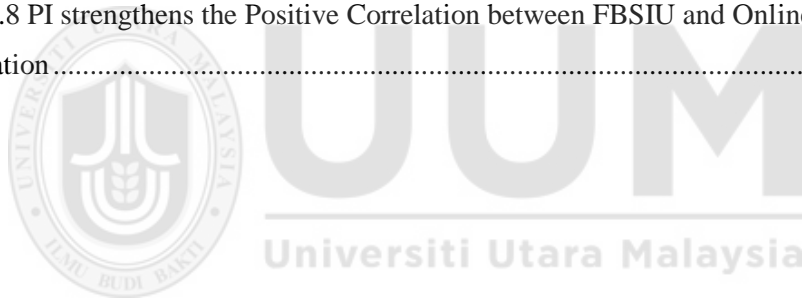
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List of Abbreviations

APC	All Progressive Congress
AVE	Average Variance Extracted
BBC	British Broadcasting Corporation
CIA	Central Intelligence Agency
CMV	Common Method Variance
CR	Composite Reliability
CVM	Civic Voluntarism Model
CVI	Content Validity Index
D2	Mahalanobis
EDA	Exploratory Data Analysis
EFA	Exploratory factor Analysis
F ²	Effect Size
FBCU-	Facebook Cognitive Usage
FBSIU	Facebook Social Integrative Usage
FBP	Facebook Perception
FBAU	Facebook Affective Usage
FBPIU	Facebook Personal integrative Usage
FBEU	Facebook Escapist Usage
FBI	Facebook Intensity
HCM	Hierarchical Construct Model
HOM	Hierarchical Construct Model
HTMT	Hetrotrait-Monotrait
INEC	Independent National Electoral Commission
KASU	Kaduna State University
M	Mean
PDP	People Democratic Party
PhD	Doctor of Philosophy
PI	Political Interest
PLS	Partial Least Squares
OPP	Online Political Participation

Q ²	Predictive Relevance
R ²	Squared Value
SD	Standard Deviation
SEM	Structural Equation Model
SPSS	Statistical Package for the Social Sciences
TAM	Technology Acceptance Model
UNICEF	United Nation Children Fund
UGT	Uses and Gratification Theory
USA	United States of America
UUM	Universiti Utara Malaysia



UUM
Universiti Utara Malaysia

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background of the Study

Political participation is an ancient practice that traced back to the ancient Greek times where citizens gathered in an open place to receive civic pronouncement and to participate in influencing public policy (Farrington, 2016; Mathé, 2018). However, in research parlance, political participation started to gain attention with the pioneering research instituted by Columbian University, on the prediction of how the media would have an influence on voter behaviours. The finding uncovers that social contexts are the predictors of voters' choice as against mass media (Berelson, 1954; Hickey & Mohan, 2004, Meredith, 2009).

Consequently, this pioneering study has established a link between the concept of political participation and social science research. Since then, political participation, which includes; voting, party membership, political campaign deliberating with political figures, social engagement, contacting public officials, donating money, protest meeting among other things, continue to evolve and attract a growing attention from different researchers (Boulianne, 2015; De Moor, 2017; Lutz, Hoffmann, & Meckel, 2014; Van Deth, 2001; Van Deth, 2015; Wielhouwer & Lockerbie, 1994; Wolfsfeld, Yarchi, & Samuel-Azran, 2016). Scholars have indicated that participating in the above mentioned political activities, is an important constituent in the success of any democratic transformation (Carbone & Memoli, 2015; Morales & Giugni, 2016). Thus, researchers have conducted a series of studies on the effect of

mass media such as television and newspaper on these different political activities of citizens (Bode & Dalrymple, 2016; Kahne, Middaugh, & Allen, 2015). However, the results of these researches have shown a deterioration in terms of the political participation activities of citizens, specifically the youth (Harris, Wyn, & Younes, 2010; Keeter, Zukin, Andolina, & Jenkins, 2002).

Regrettably, this issue of youth apathy to politics is a widespread global issue and it posed a serious apprehension to many democratic nations all over the world (Oyedemi & Mahlatji, 2016; Skoric & Poor, 2013). For example, studies in many countries like, United States, Europe, Asia and some African countries (Araba & Braimah, 2015; Melo & Stockemer, 2014; Potgieter & Lutz, 2014) have discovered apathy in political participation among youth because there is no sign of interest in them towards participating in political matters (Memon, Ishak, & Hamid, 2017; Soler-i-Martí, 2015), they perceive themselves as less politically empowered to act and influence how the government works (Fahmy, 2017), and the fact that they are rarely taken seriously by older people (Bastedo, 2015), thus, they do not engage in democratic process (Bessant, 2016; Dumitrica, 2016). Apparently, this state of youth political apathy and disengagement in the political activities is a worrisome trend in various countries that made young people lose their political efficacy to exercise their civic right in the democratic process of their countries (Dumitrica, 2016; Ekwonchi & Udenze, 2014).

Thus, this has instigated scholars' concern over the years to employ different models and theories in order to explore the causes behind the decline in youth participation and what may promote the participation of youth in political activities of their countries (Rainsford, 2017; Thun, 2014). Therefore, they embarked on the examination of youth political participation from two viewpoints, disengagement and decreasing in participation and engagement and decreasing in participation viewpoints. Disengagement viewpoints scholars perceive that manifestation of low voter turnout among youth is a testimony of their disengagement (Briggs, 2017; Wong, 2016). While engagement scholars point to the fact that youth have not disengaged in political participation totally, but, rather, they only shifted to the new online form of political participation in social media platforms, such as Facebook (Bosch, 2017; Collin, 2015).

Drawing from the above background, the radio, television, newspaper and other mainstream media have not continually increased youth political participation because they have partial influence in stimulating their interest for political participation (Hao, Wen, & George, 2014; Iwasaki, 2017; Lee, Shah, & McLeod, 2013). Prior to the coming of social media, youth considered these traditional media as limited and expensive platforms for political participation (Faucher, 2015). Interestingly, of recent, there was an appearance of a new development in political participation among youth in the USA, Britain, Canada, Malaysia and Nigeria for example (Abdulrauf & Ishak, 2016; Henn & Foard, 2014; Memon, Ishak, & Hamid, 2017; Salman & Saad, 2015; Yang & DeHart, 2016), especially with the rise of social

media such as Facebook; the availability of options for an online political participation have immensely changed impact on the youth participation in politics. For example, in Nigeria, Araba and Braimah (2015) noted that from the time when the democratic rule return in Nigeria in 1999, the arena is such that political participation is in the state of disinterest and apathy among youth as they felt disconnected from the political process.

It is, therefore, pertinent to ask why the change in youth political participation. And it is also worthwhile to undertake a study to unravel what Facebook has, which result in influencing this new emerging online democratic community of youth in participating in politics online. Previously, the landscape of political participation is determined by traditional media such as radio, television and newspapers, demographic factor like age, psychological factor like attitude and interest, however, in this Internet age, research findings suggest that Information and Communication Technology (ICT) and Social Network Sites (SNS) also perform a correspondingly important position (Vissers, & Stolle, 2014). Therefore, this study comprises an interplay of social networking sites, politics, demographic factors and psychological factors. Subsequently, in this study integrated factors of social media use, theoretical postulations, demography, and psychological factors were used to examine the relationship of these interrelated factors from an interdisciplinary study of media and politics across Nigeria.

1.2 Statement of Problem

For over a decade, the issue of participation and the presence of youth in the political domain has been an issue of interest among researchers (Meneses-Rocha, 2017). The main reason is that communication scholars were making concerted efforts in studying the rise of social media as an alternative marketplace from the mainstream media, where the different shade of ideas and opinions on political activities can be channelled without much interference from any regulatory power (Freelon, McIlwain, & Clark, 2018). However, the effort remained limited because of the decrease in the political participation of youth and its implication for the smooth democracy of nations which has remained an area requiring more empirical examination (Mills & Waite, 2017; Sloam, 2014). To remedy this issue, researchers in communication must be able to explore what will inspire youth' crave to participate in politics. Cammaerts et al. (2014) and Carlisle and Patton (2015) suggest for research focused on how social media use increases participation among politically apathetic youth.

Despite, the fact that scholars have noted that the participation of youth in any political activities of their country is a fundamental factor in the sustenance of democracy (Varnali & Gorgulu, 2015). And that youth by their nature can easily mould with any societal changes in politics and social happenings (Henn & Foard, 2014). Yet, many studies have shown that youth are apathetic and indifferent when it comes to politics and political activities, whereas, it is through their participation that they can acquire self-confidence and competencies which will make them relevant for effective communication and influencing political decisions (Cammaerts,

Bruter, Banaji, Harrison, & Anstead, 2014; Chryssochoou & Barrett, 2017; Dumitrica, 2016; Memon, Ishak, & Hamid, 2017; Oosterhoff, Kaplow, Layne, & Pynoos, 2018). Similarly, regardless of the youth having strength and ability to influence the direction of the political systems of their society, in the recent past, studies have shown that their lack of concern in participating in political actions, like voting and being a member of political parties have seriously relegated their political participatory power over last two decades both in developed and developing nations (Theocharis & Quintelier, 2014).

The above concerns point to the fact that, these apathetic and disinterest of youth in political participation is an indication of the problem that youth are becoming dissatisfied and disillusioned with most of their political systems (Memon, Ishak, & Hamid, 2017; Soler-i-Martí, 2015), with resultant activities such as shunning the electoral process of their societies, low turnout during voting and disregard to governmental policies (Cammaerts et al., 2014; Holbein & Hillygus, 2016; Kurtenbach & Pawelz, 2015). Hence, this development led to an underrepresentation of youth in most of the local and global political system. Thus, they become inactive instead of becoming active participants in political activities of their nations, therefore, their concerns and demands may not be addressed (Wani, 2016; Zukane & Tangang, 2017). As a result, this decline of youth in political participation is ascribed to different obstacles either in the political system, or other problems which may emanate from plot from the old people or political figures to scheme out the youth

from the political arena, political figures or from the process of participating in the political system (Briggs, 2017; Mainsah, Brandtzæg, & Følstad, 2016).

Consequently, recent researches on social media and participation in politics have recognized Facebook as a social media platform that can be used by the youth to remedy this apathetic and disinterest to political participation. Though, there were few studies that empirically linked the use of Facebook to increase in the political activities of the youth (Odeyemi & Mosunmola, 2015; Ternes et al., 2014). However, they have only provided a contracted understanding of Facebook use and how the usage relates to political participation (Mainsah, Brandtzæg, & Følstad, 2016) and there is still a gap in the empirical understanding of the relationship between Facebook use and online political participation (Chan, 2016). Therefore, Briggs (2017) and Russo and Stattin (2017) suggested that there is a need for further study to be undertaken to understand the details about the non-involvement of the youth in political participation. Therefore, this study seeks to examine the relationship between Facebook use and online political participation of youth in Nigeria.

More so, studies have also revealed that the reasons why youth are not participating in politics prior to the arrival platforms of social media such as Facebook are because they do not have anything worthy of gratification from participating in conventional i.e. offline political participation activities e.g. casting vote, in contrast, youth by their nature always prefer participating in an interactive and participatory medium like Facebook for satisfying their social and political needs (Bronstein et al., 2016;

Kamau, 2016). Additionally, despite the significant decline in participating in conventional forms of political participation among youth, there is a significant record of their presence on social media platforms such as Facebook (Altieri, Leccardi, & Ruffini, 2016; Uzuegbunam & Azikiwe, 2015). Hence, the platforms have significantly re-invigorated their interest to participate in politics (Altieri, Leccardi, & Ruffini, 2016). But, because of the scarcity of empirical studies that examine these non-conventional forms of participation, i.e. online political participation, with respect to the participation of youth in politics. That is why, Altieri, Leccardi, and Ruffini (2016) suggested for further studies that will examine youth political participation with non-conventional i.e. online forms of participation on platforms of social media such as Facebook to ascertain whether Facebook uses relate to the increase in youth's political participation online.

Furthermore, scholars have also recognized that the decline and non-participation of youth in politics, is noticeable in conventional i.e. offline forms of participation, such as voting, and this was attributed to the simple fact which show that conventional i.e. offline political participation are often characterized by many dubious processes such as election rigging, election violence and general distrust in the whole process, which make the institutional form dispassionate to the youth (Bessant, 2016). As a result of that, youth's participation is more in non-conventional of political participation than in conventional forms of political participation, especially in developing countries such as in Nigeria (Mustapha, Gbonegun, & Mustapha, 2016). Therefore, Chan (2016) suggested that the quest for the empirical gap in the

understanding of reasons for the decline in youth political participation should be filled with conducting research on Facebook use and online forms of political participation. Therefore, this study intends to fill the gap by examining how the Facebook intensity relates to youth online political participation.

Similarly, studies have noted that the rapidly growing popularity of the Facebook platform has amplified the rise of youth that engage in different political and civic activities (Kahne, Middaugh, & Allen, 2015; Robets, 2015; Theocharis & Lowe, 2016). These engaged youth have become mobilized and empowered to show their influence in instituting change in any democratic activities of a nation (Abdu, Mohamad, & Muda, 2017; Theocharis & Lowe, 2016). In addition, scholars have established that the future of democracy in this digital age is in the hands of youth (Herrera, 2014; Schwartz, 2014). However, in spite of the fact that the coming of Facebook has now re-invigorated the youth to participate in politics, little researches have been undertaken to determine the relationship between Facebook usage and online political participation of youth (Abdu, Mohamad, & Muda, 2017; Theocharis & Lowe, 2016). Thus, there is a need for empirical studies on the usage of Facebook for online political participation which this study undertook

Furthermore, despite the few studies that recorded a stable rise in youth's participation in politics from the angle of social media (Bakker & de Vresse, 2011; Gomez, 2014; Mirazchiyski, Caro, & Sandoval-Hernández, 2014; Potgieter, 2013). Still, some scholars were restrained in concluding that platforms of social media, such

as Facebook can be regarded as an adequate measure that can raise the influence of apathetic youth to participate in political activities which is their fundamental civic right for entrenching viable democracy. This hesitation may result from the fact that some researcher (Salman, & Saad 2015; Skoric, Zhu, Goh, & Pang, 2016; Theocharis & Lowe, 2016) have noted that social media platforms such as Facebook is used predominantly by youth for entertainment-oriented purposes. Thus, the position of these researchers is that social media platform such as Facebook is not a strong influence for youth political participation, rather, there are other motivators that could be accountable for motivating youth to participate in politics. Therefore, these inconsistent and unclear positions portend great potential for conducting research on online political participation via social media platforms such as Facebook. More so, researchers such as, Chryssochoou and Barrett (2017) and Kupchik and Catlaw (2015) suggested for empirical work to examine motivating ways of understanding the participation of youth in politics and whether the connection between the use of social media, such as Facebook influence in the rise in political participation among youth. Therefore, this study undertook a survey in Nigeria to investigate the political participation of youth on Facebook.

Likewise, another theoretical quest that has elicited the curiosity of researchers is, in studying the motivation and usage sought by youth in their engagement with platforms of social media such as Facebook. Researchers such as Bowman and Akcaoglu (2014), Dhaha and Igale (2013), Quan-Haase and Young (2010) and Valenzuela, Park, and Kee (2009) have all established that cognitive need of

information seeking as well as socialize with friends motivated more youth to join Facebook for the purpose of information and socialization. Additionally, another finding by Valentine (2011) indicated that members of a group's wall on Facebook utilize it for the purpose of information and socialization with friends. However, there are rare studies that explored the relationship the usages of Facebook by the youth and their online political activities (Bowman & Akcaoglu, 2014). Consequently, Yang and DeHart (2016) suggested that future research on social media and politics examine the relationship between psychological and social factors such as cognitive usage, personal integrative usage and affective usage and online political participation. This study, therefore, examined how cognitive usage, social integrative usage, personal integrative usage, affective usage and escapist usage of Facebook use relate to youth online political participation.

Equally, researchers have once feared that the use of the internet and its resultant of virtual communication platforms will hamper the relationship and bond of connection between friends (Jacobsen & Forste, 2011; Steinfield & Lampe, 2007; Taylor, Ewin, & Strutton, 2011). However, in contrast to that fear, researcher such as Kalpidou, Costin and Morris (2011), Li-Barber (2012), Manago, Taylor and Greenfield (2012) and Shields and Kane (2011) found that Facebook has only revolutionized the ways in which friends and family can stay socially connected, thus, their interest shifted to investigating the intensity of social media usage, such as Facebook through measurement of time expended on Facebook as predictors of intensity of Facebook use (Pettijohn II, LaPiene, Pettijohn, & Horting, 2012). Yet, Papp, Danielewicz and

Cayemberg (2012) and Pettijohn, LaPiene, Pettijohn and Horting (2012) argued that measuring the intensity of Facebook use cannot be measured only by time spent on Facebook. That is why, Liu, Shi, Liu, and Sheng (2013) noted that the intensity of Facebook use is somewhat related to psychological, social and political factors which can be negative or positive. They argued that the key to an understanding relationship of the intensity of Facebook is through examining Facebook use beyond simply the extent of time consumed while on the site.

Therefore, in what appears as a solution to this theoretical gap of an adequate measurement of Facebook intensity, de Vries and Kühne (2015) and Skiera, Hinz and Spann (2015) recommend that the intensity of use of Facebook will be more adequately measured when the measurement comprises; network size of friendship on the site and psychological, social and emotional factors that connect individually with the site. As such, many studies have investigated Facebook intensity to include the network size of friendship on the site, and psychological, social and emotional factors that connect an individual with the site (Jin, 2015; Orosz, Tóth-Király, & Bóthe, 2016; Phua & Ahn, 2016). However, none of these studies and many more have related the Facebook intensity to political participation. This has made studies that relate Facebook intensity to online political participation scarce (Skiera, Hinz, & Spann, 2015). Obviously, there is a need to investigate how Facebook intensity relates to online political participation. As a result, this study measured the Facebook intensity and online political participation.

In another vein, the perceptions of social media have concrete political importance in the literature of political participation (Ho, Binder, Becker, Moy, Scheufele, Brossard, & Gunther, 2011). As a result, many people are being influenced to perform media activities because of the perception they attribute to the media (Mihailidis, 2014). Accordingly, individuals' behaviours and attitudes are affected by the perception of what they believe media can offer them. However, Gil de Zúñiga, Weeks and Ardèvol-Abreu (2017) in their study of the perception of media in politics, suggested for intensifying research to determine whether the perception of social media affect politics is also true for political participation activities via social media.

Additionally, researchers such as, Barnidge and Rojas (2014), Hoffman, Jones and Young (2013), Houston, Hansen and Nisbett (2011), Moreno, Navarro, Tench and Zerfass (2015) and Schivinski and Dabrowski (2016) have focused mainly on the perception of the influence that online media has on people activities. Thus, one of the factors that have often been neglected in past researches in this area, is on Facebook perception and online political participation. Thus, additional research needs to address how youth Facebook perception relates to online political participation.

Similarly, Bock Seggaard (2015) in his examination of users' perception of social media, stated that are scarce empirical studies about users' perceptions of social media in relation to online political activities, and also whether users perceive Facebook for other purposes is the same way they perceive in a similar way in online

political participation is still unclear. It is, therefore, the intention of this study to undertake research in order to fill this gap by examining the relationship of Facebook user's perception and online political participation.

Furthermore, the literature on gender difference between male and female with regard to political participation is undeniably one of the most inconsistent findings in political participation studies for both offline and online participation (Conway, 2001; Kenworth & Malami, 1999). Although some of the previous studies on gender difference between male and female political participation were optimistic that the significant difference will steadily disappear as female catch up with a male in the grounds of education, and resources which provided them the chance to participate in politics their male counterpart (Hooghe & Stolle, 2004; Ondercin & Jones-White, 2011; Read, 2007). However, recent research findings, submitted that the difference is still highly significant (Brandtzaeg, 2017; Coffé, 2013; Coffe & Dilli, 2014; Fox & Lawless, 2014). Consequently, the above inconsistency in the research findings on the difference in gender political participation created a literature gap that requires to be filled by examining gender difference in political participation among male and female. Therefore, this study conducted a survey to determine gender difference in political participation among male and female.

Another glaring limitation in the empirical examination of gender differences in political participation is that most of the studies like that of Bratton and Logan (2006) and Bratton, Chu and Lagos (2010) have neglected young people in their choice of

respondents and focus mainly only on adult respondents. By doing so, they have neglected the fact that gender role develops in the early life stage, even before the age of eighteen (Cicognani, Zani, Fournier, Gavray, & Born, 2012). As a result, Isaksson, Kotsadam and Nerman (2014) suggested that further study is needed that particularly focus on young respondents to determine gender differences in political participation, specifically between young respondents that were often neglected in gender difference studies on political participation.

In another vein, Wojcieszak (2012) has noted that social media and political participation is an area of research that requires to be well theorized with more theoretical support and explanations. As a result, Cheng, Liang, and Leung (2015) and Dunne, Lawlor and Rowley (2010) recommended that a study on social media use and political participation from the uses and gratification (i.e. cognitive usage, personal usage social usage, affective usage and escapist usage) perspective should be conducted. More so, recent studies have suggested the application of the theory in studying social media and participation (Lesch, 2018; Pang, 2016; Phua, Jin, & Kim, 2017). This is also because social media is comparatively new when compared to the mainstream media and the components of the theory are more comprehensive in explaining the social media use (Ancu & Cozma, 2009; Dunne, Lawlor, & Rowley, 2010; Flanagin, 2005; Quan-Haase & Young, 2010). Thus, the study investigates the components of uses and gratification theory; cognitive usage, personal usage social usage, affective usage, and escapist usage in relation to online political participation via Facebook.

Similarly, while research on social media and political participation has expanded impetus, past studies tended to focus mostly on examining the effects of social media usage on political participation, and seemed to ignore examining the series of predictors that influence the relationship (Dimitrova & Bystrom, 2013; Dimitrova, Shehata, Strömbäck, & Nord, 2014). Although, some scholars in their investigation of social media and political participation have largely confined their focus on predictors such as socioeconomic status, sociopolitical status and demographic status and its antecedents (Bevelander & Pendakur, 2014; Goodman & Wright, 2015; Holt, Shehata, Strömbäck, & Ljungberg, 2013; Hope & Jagers, 2014; Verba et al., 1995), yet, studies that specifically examined social media and political participation from the perspective of psychological engagement are scarce (Kim & Khang, 2014).

As a result, the civic voluntarism model (CVM) which embodied factors of psychological engagement, such as political interest has been recognized as a robust departure to examining political participation through psychological engagements approach (Kern, Marien, & Hooghe, 2015; Whiteley, 2009). Consequently, Kim and Khang (2014) and Oni, Oni, Mbarika and Ayo (2017) recommend for examining political participation through the predictors of psychological engagement in the civic voluntarism model. Therefore, this study specifically examines political interest, a key predictor of psychological engagement in the CVM model as a moderating variable of the relationships between Facebook factors that might influence online political participation.

Although, the introduction of the moderating effect in the models of some studies has not been considered in some of the structural equation models (SEM) studies, and this lack of consideration has led to a lack of significance to many types of researches (MacKinnon, 2011; MacKinnon, Lockhart, Baraldi, & Gelfand, 2013). However, Fairchil and MacKinnon (2009) and Hensler and Fassot (2010) emphasized that works of literatures have identified the importance of moderators in understanding and directing complex relationships in researches. Therefore, the introduction of a moderator in this study is imperative, In addition, since there are inconsistencies in findings from past studies on youth online political participation, introducing a moderator is also necessary. More so, because Baron and Kenny (1986) recommend that moderators should be introduced where there is an inconsistent relationship between a predictor (i.e. independent variable) and criterion (i.e. dependent variable). Therefore, this has provided credence to the introduction of a moderator 'Political interest' in this study.

In summary, it can be gathered from the above discussions of problem statements that there are researchable gaps in the context of the relative political disengagement of the young in the developing countries and the popularity of using social media, (Facebook) which facilitate different online political Facebook activities among youth. Facebook and online political participation are usually measured with different variables, therefore, the declaration of the problem in this study intends to operationalize the variables of Facebook Intensity, Facebook Usage, and Facebook

Perception to determine and measure their relationship with online political participation among youths in Nigeria, on the premise of Uses and Gratification theory and Civic voluntarism model, and also to examine whether political interest moderates the relationship between the variables.

1.3 Research Questions

In line with the theoretical arguments for the need of applying uses and gratification theory and civic voluntarism model for in understanding social media and political participation as discussed in the problem statement and literature sections, the following research questions are proposed:

1. What is the level of online political participation among youth in Nigeria?
2. Is there a significant difference between male and female in Facebook usage, Facebook intensity, Facebook perception and online political participation among youth in Nigeria?
3. Is there any significant relationship between Facebook usage, Facebook intensity, Facebook perception and online political participation among youth in Nigeria?
4. Does political interest moderate the relationship between Facebook usage, Facebook intensity, Facebook perception and online political participation among youth in Nigeria?

1.4 Research Objectives

The main objective of this research is to examine the relationship between Facebook use and online political participation among youth in Nigeria.

The specific objectives of this research are:

1. To identify the level of online political participation among youth in Nigeria.
2. To determine whether there is a difference between male and female in Facebook Usage, Facebook intensity, and Facebook Perception and in online political participation.
3. To examine whether there is a significant relationship between Facebook Usage, Facebook Intensity, Facebook Perception and Online Political Participation among youth in Nigeria
4. To analyse the moderating influence of political interest on the relationship between Facebook Usage, Facebook Intensity, Facebook Perception and Online Political Participation among youth in Nigeria.

1.5 Significance of the Study

The study is of current interest and topical being interdisciplinary of communication and politics. At present, researchers are still unclear about the disengagement of youth from politics and how and whether Facebook use will enhance the relationship of the disengage youth. Thus, this study progresses on the ongoing research quest on the apathetic nature of youth towards participating in politics and also by extending an examination of whether Facebook usage, Facebook intensity and Facebook

perception relate to the political participation of youth online. Therefore, the outcomes of this study add to the theoretical, methodological and practical body of knowledge. It will also be beneficial to researchers in the communication field, social science and political science. Likewise, it will provide insight into the connectedness among various disciplines in the body of knowledge. The theoretical significance of this study is derived from the fact that data from the study will contribute to the expansion of the utility of (UGT) that was previously used for studying conventional mass media and conventional political participation to studying Facebook and online political participation.

Similarly, it will extend the civic voluntarism model (CVM) which was previously used for studying conventional political participation to the study of online political participation. The findings of the study will also enrich the general literature on communication, political communication and social media and politics in particular, whereby political scientists, media researches in the field of social and political sciences will benefit. It will also provide an enhanced understanding of different modes of online participation. The findings of the study will strengthen the viability of the survey research method as a significant quantitative method of empirical inquiry.

A systematic academic study of this nature that seeks to examine the political participation of undergraduate in an online nature in the context of Nigeria is very scarce and therefore the findings of this study would contribute immensely to the

literature on Facebook and politics. The empirical findings and the review of different researches undertaken in the study will increase the volume of literature on online political participation and new media and extend knowledge about youth political participation activities on social media.

In sum, this study expects to unravel specific understanding of how different dimensions of the variable, that will emanate from the review of literature, can be examined together with dimensions of politics to develop a scientific model of relationship that will provide a scientific evidence of the nature of relationship which will enhance the literature about online political participation and Facebook.

The research is also intended to provide a methodological contribution, by enhancing the body of knowledge on the viability of the quantitative field of research, for the fact that the researcher would explore the field to gather primary data which will highlight new information that was previously not measured in a study of this nature. In addition, the validation of quantitative instrument to analyse data on political participation in the perspective of developing nations such as Nigeria, will highlight the utility of quantitative method and its different analysis instruments that are infrequently used for measuring online political participation, especially in Africa and Asia, despite its widely acceptance and use in developed nations for testing political participation.

The Practical contribution of this study is in the fact that, it is expected that the findings of this study may also assist the Federal Government of Nigeria in having a clearer understanding of the pattern of social media use behaviour of Nigerian youth, which could contribute and provide focus to the Nigerian government and the National Assembly of Nigeria on the governmental policy of enacting law for the regulation of online activities in Nigeria. The study will also serve as a guide to policymakers, governmental organization and non-governmental organizations of youth, politicians, political officeholders, political parties, Independent National Electoral Commission (INEC), and National Communication Commission of Nigeria (NCC), with document on the nature of youth's online political participation that will help government and stakeholders in providing a better focus for the formulation and implementation of appropriate communication strategies for effective mobilization of Nigerian youth towards national developmental goals.

1.6 Scope of the Study

This study is limited to Facebook as an embodiment of social media to examine the relationship between Facebook usage, Facebook intensity, Facebook perception and Online political participation and also limited to, online political participation, it is also to test the moderating role of political interest as variable between Facebook usage, Facebook intensity, Facebook perception and online political participation. The researchers' interest in the hypothesized variable relationship stems from the fact that the relationship is important in the context of today's growth in the use of social

media, specifically Facebook in the developed and developing nations for political participation.

The choice of Kaduna State University (KASU), as the place of the research is based on the fact that the university is situated in the heart of the Kaduna metropolitan city, the capital of Kaduna state, and the political and administrative capital of northern Nigeria. Kaduna city is characterized with the highest population density because it is Nigeria's third most populated state, with a large political and socio economic awareness among its residents, which enable youth residents in the city to acquire a high level of literacy (Kaduna state, 2018). Similarly, because of the rural-urban migration, youth in the metropolitan city of Kaduna, the city becomes the home of youth in Nigeria. Thus, the undergraduate youth of the KASU constitutes the population of the study, these undergraduates are the product of this type of youth who came from urban and rural background. Also, the choice of KASU as the research place is because the university offers admission to youth from the urban and the rural area of the country. Similarly, the university is a public university that accommodates youth undergraduates from all parts of Nigeria. Therefore, youth in KASU are a good representation of Nigerian youth and also an embodiment of Nigerian youth.

1.7 Conceptual and Operational Definition of Terms

Conceptualization and operationalization of the key variables in this study are as follows:

1.7.1 Online Political Participation:

Political participation is defined as a single or collective act at the different levels of national or local that supports or opposes the state authorities, structures, and/or decisions regarding the allocation of people's goods (Conge, 1988). It can be seen as any activity that influences, affects, shapes or modifies the political circle, ranges from casting of vote in an election, appearing in political meetings or rallies, writing a letter to a political representative, organizing a protest and even committing an act of terrorism (Kaase & Marsh, 1979).

Online political participation (OPP) is the online activity of citizens that aims at influencing political decisions (Zhang, Johnson, Seltzer, & Bichard, 2009). In essence, online political participation is political activity performed online with the aim of influencing government action (Valenzuela, Kim, & de Zúñiga, 2013). It comprises involvement in the following on social media platform; engaging in reading peoples' opinion and views on politics, exchanging opinions and views about political issues, it also includes sending and receiving messages via social media from the government or elected legislature, political candidate, browsing news about politics and influencing friends to join political discussion or political cause.

Consequently, consistent with Lutz, Hoffmann, and Meckel's (2014) conceptualization of online participation, this study, therefore, operationalizes online political participation as the political participatory acts on Facebook which includes liking, commenting, and sharing of political content on Facebook such as a political

message, information, picture or text on personal, group or friend's wall. The OPP variable was adapted from Vitak et al., (2011).

1.7.2 Facebook Usage

Facebook Usage (FBU), as a variable refers to the Facebook usage for accessing knowledge and information to satisfy the information need; socialization with family, friends and relations need; personal credibility, confidence, stability and personal status need; affective pleasure and emotional experiences need; escape from boredom, problems and relaxation need of user online (Katz et al., 1974). The FBU variable has five factors; cognitive usage, social integrative usage, affective usage, personal integrative usage and escapist usage, the five dimensions were measured by items adapted from uses and gratification study of (Katz, Haas, & Gurevitch, 1973; Papacharissi & Rubin, 2000).

1.7.2.1 Cognitive Usage

Cognitive usage is the use of media for acquiring knowledge and information needs (Katz, et al., 1974). It refers to looking for information and acquiring general knowledge, it is also about assessing the intention of media consumers to visit the media primarily to seek information, knowledge or general understanding of the environment. People have a different need for their use of media, which consist of gaining more knowledge. Therefore, cognitive usage in this study refers to Facebook cognitive usage by the youth for seeking available information and knowledge needs

which may also relate to online political participation and it was measured by items adapted from (Katz, Haas, & Gurevitch, 1973; Papacharissi & Rubin, 2000).

1.7.2.2 Social Integrative Usage

The use of media for the need of socializing with family, friends and relations in the society. (Katz, et al., 1974). It refers to the motivation of keeping interaction with family, friends, and colleagues with the use of media. Therefore, in this study Social integrative usage refers to the Facebook social integrative usage by the youth that enable them to interact with friends, family and relations online which may relate to OPP and it was adapted from (Katz, Haas, & Gurevitch, 1973; Papacharissi & Rubin, 2000).

1.7.2.3 Personal Integrative Usage

Personal integrative is the used of media primarily for credibility, stability, confidence, and personal status of a media consumer (Katz, et al., 1974). It refers to gaining trust, integrity and personal status of a media consumer, it is about assessing the intention of media consumers to visit the media for credibility, confidence and personal status. In this study, personal integrative usage refers to the Facebook personal integrative usage by the youth that enable them to portray their status as online media consumers, which may relate to OPP and it was adapted from (Katz, Haas, & Gurevitch, 1973; Papacharissi & Rubin, 2000).

1.7.2.4 Affective Usage

Affective usage is primarily about the need a consumer has in media for pleasure and emotional experiences (Katz, et al., 1974). It refers to the motivation of media consumer for entertaining, emotional and pleasant experiences by the use of media, it is also about assessing the intention of media consumers to visit the media primarily for aesthetic, pleasure and emotional experiences. Therefore, in this study, affective usage refers to the Facebook affective usage by the youth for fun, entertainment or just to be happy which may relate to OPP and it was adapted from (Katz, Haas, & Gurevitch, 1973; Papacharissi & Rubin, 2000).

1.7.2.5 Escapist Usage

Escapist usage is the use of media primarily to escape from boredom, to forget about problems or just to relax (Katz, et al., 1974). It refers to the motivation of media consumer escaping from problems, pressures and tensions. It is about assessing the intention of media consumers to visit the media primarily to escape, diversion and tension release. In this study, escapist usage refers to the Facebook escapist usage by the youth to discharge boredom, to forget about problems or just to relax and it was measured by items adapted from (Katz, Haas, & Gurevitch, 1973; Papacharissi & Rubin, 2000).

1.7.3 Facebook Intensity

The Facebook intensity(FBI), provides a measure of Facebook beyond frequency or duration indices (Ellison, Steinfield, & Lampe, 2007; Lou, Yan, Nickerson, &

McMorris, 2012; Vitak et al., 2011). Facebook Intensity is also a concept that refers to measure Facebook beyond simple measurement of occurrence and time, by combining also an emotional connection to the site and how the use of the site integrates into individuals' daily activities (Alhabash, Park, Kononova, Chiang, & Wise, 2012; Ellison et al., 2007). Equally, Facebook intensity can be regarded as a concept that is used to measure a different aspects of Facebook use such as addiction, the intensity of friendship, the emotional intensity in using Facebook (de Vries & Kühne, 2015). Tang and Lee (2013) noted that despite the fact that the Facebook intensity scale allows for measuring multiple aspects of Facebook with high levels of inter-item reliability, yet, it also has several limitations. First, there are inevitable aspects of Facebook use that were omitted, such as network heterogeneity, therefore, they concluded that a differentiated approach, that will separate the different aspects of the scale (frequency of time, emotional connection to the site and friends) from each other, would allow researcher to determine which aspects of Facebook use actually matter with regard to what outcomes (Tang & Lee, 2013).

Second, separating the items constituting the intensity scale would also allow researchers to examine how one aspect of the scale may mediate the impact of other aspects (Tang & Lee, 2013). Thus, Facebook intensity can be regarded as a scale of Facebook measurement only, whereas, it can also be used a concept when measuring a different aspect of Facebook use.

For example, in their study Faraon and Kaipainen (2014) notes that many studies on the Facebook intensity, use different dimensions for Facebook intensity, such as (de Vries & Kühne, 2015; Orosz, Tóth-Király, & Bőthe, 2015). For example, in their study, Orosz et al. (2015) conceptualize Facebook intensity with multi-dimensions; boredom, persistence, over used and self-expression. While, de Vries and Kühne (2015) in their study on Facebook and self-perception considered Facebook intensity as emotional connection with Facebook and Facebook friends.

Consequently, consistent with the suggestion of Tang and Lee (2013) of separating Facebook intensity into different dimensions and also consistent with the understanding of Facebook intensity by de Vries and Kühne (2015) this study operationalizes Facebook intensity as a variable that refers to Facebook user's strong emotional connection with the site and an attachment to user's Facebook Friends. Whereas emotional connection with the Facebook as a dimension of Facebook intensity will be measured with items adapted from Kaseraporn (2011) and a user's attachment to Facebook friends will be measured by items adapted from Joinson (2008).

1.7.4 Facebook Perception

Perception is the procedure by which human beings infer and form impression to come up with a meaningful understanding of the world (Lindsay & Norman, 1977). Perception can be seen as the process in which a person selects or organizes and understands stimuli and a clear picture of things the world (Schiffman & Kanuk,

2004). In other words, human beings are always confronted with different stimuli or situations and they always try to interpret or perceive the stimuli or situation into something meaningful based on their prior experiences. However, their interpretation or perception of the stimuli or situation may be significantly different from reality. Thus, human beings normally form their perception by passing through four successive stages of stimulation, registration, organization, and interpretation so that they can form a meaningful interpretation of the world (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2004).

Social media users perceive social networking sites in different ways because of their backgrounds, characteristics and different perceptual ability. For example, Chan-Olmsted, Cho, and Lee (2013) in their study established that social media users differ in their perception of the functions of numerous social media platforms across several dimensions.

Therefore, this study operationalizes Facebook perception (FBP) consistent with the understanding of Haque, Sarwar, and Yasmin (2013) as Facebook perception refers to how Facebook user's perceive privacy nature, available features of Facebook, the accessibility nature of Facebook and information sharing provisions that are available on Facebook as a social media platform. Facebook perception as a variable in this study has four dimensions; privacy, features, sharing information and accessibility. Facebook perception as a variable in the study was adapted from Haque et al. (2013).

1.7.5 Political Interest

Political Interest is the willingness of citizens to pay attention to political issues at the probable expense of other issues (Lupia & Philpot, 2005). Also, the motivation of citizens to follow the activities of government and to understand politics (Whiteley, 2011). Therefore, a healthy democracy relies heavily on citizens that exhibits interest in the politic. The conception of political interest (PI) in the context of this study is the political motivation that may influence the direction of emotional connection to Facebook and Facebook friends, the cognitive usage, social integrative usage, affective usage, personal integrative usage and escapist usage, and the perception of Facebook features, privacy, accessibility and sharing of information which may relate youth in Nigeria to engage in online political participation on Facebook. The political interest measurement came from the study of (Whiteley, 2005).

1.7.6 Youth

The concept of youth, in general, refers to a stage in life that a person transits from one stage of life to another. In this context, the Merriam-Webster dictionary (2015) sees youth as the period between childhood and maturity. While the United Nation (2015) defined youth as an individual person between the ages of 15 to 24 years. However, these scales are in line with countries like Nigeria. For example, a youth, in Nigeria is defined as a citizen either male or female within the ages of 15 to 29 (National Youth Policy, 2019). This is also the definition of youth by the African Youth Charter. Similarly, a youth of 18 years and above is the only person recognized as eligible to vote in Nigeria. The word youth can be used in a singular

form to refer to a person of a specified age, in this context, its plural form is youths with (s). While, the word “youth” without “s” can also be used as a plural noun referring to a group of young people at once (Baldick, 2015; Merriam-Webster dictionary, 2015). Thus, in the perspective of this study, therefore, youth are defined as undergraduates of KASU in Nigeria. Many scholars have used students as respondents in studies about youth and political participation (Ekström & Östman, 2013; Gordon, 2008; Velasquez & LaRose, 2015; & Reichert, 2016).

1.7.7 Gender

Gender denotes to the socially constructed attributes behaviours activities, and roles that a particular society considers proper for men and women (West & Zimmerman, 1987). The difference between the word ‘gender’ and ‘sex’ is that gender refers to socially accepted differences between the male and the female based on their roles, while sex refers to innate, natural or biological differences between the male and the female (West & Zimmerman, 1987). In this study, gender refers to male and female students who are currently enrolled in undergraduate programmes in KASU Nigeria.

1.8 Chapter Summary

This chapter introduces this study by establishing the background to the study and providing the statement of the problem of the study, which highlights that the potential of the Facebook platform is already manifesting in Nigeria, but little is known about the analytical and evaluative relationship about the use of Facebook for

online political participation among Nigerian youth. In addition, the objective and research questions that give a direction and provides insight into what the researchers aim to achieve. Furthermore, the significance of the study and its scope, which explains the specific demarcation within which the study dwell was also explained. Subsequently, conceptual and operational definition of important terms was explained.

The next chapter will dwell extensively on review of related past literature on the main variables of the study that will a clear perspective on the main variables of the study and give ground to the hypothetical development, for further empirical examination.



CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This chapter presents a review of related literature about Facebook use as a social media platform in online political participation. The review starts with the conceptual overview of the concepts of political participation and online political participation showing how the concepts evolved. This was followed by the discussion on how youth utilizes online social media platforms on the internet for political participation with a specific focus on youth in Nigeria. The review will also dwell on how the Facebook platform evolved as prelude to a review of the relationship of the major variables of the study, which are Facebook intensity, Facebook usage, Facebook perception and OPP, and then political interest and online political participation, as well as the hypotheses drawn from the reviewed literature. The last concluding parts of the chapter are the theoretical discussion and the conceptual framework of the study conceptualize to underpin the study and to illustrate its visual framework.

2.2 Political Participation

The study of political participation dates back to the past fifty years and is continually growing in the number of explicit forms of political participation (Brady, 1998). Understandably, this development reveals the growing significance of government in a country and the importance of politics for the people in present societies with a continuing obscuring of the difference between political and non-political actions in the private and public domain. The study of political participation had passed through

these social developments in a series of historical studies in political participation. One of these studies is the 1940s and 1950s seminal voting studies which confined political participation to casting vote or activities of campaign (Berelson, 1954). By the beginning of 1960s political participation was mostly conceived as activities concerned with usual political activities such as political campaigning by politicians and political parties, through associates among people and public officials (Campbell, Converse, Miller, & Stokes, 1960). These forms of activities are known today as 'conventional' forms of political participation. Similarly, at the end of the 1960s and the beginning of 1970s a great refinement of the concept of political participation took place in two directions. The conventional modes, of which considered political participation as direct contacts between people, public officers, and politicians (Kaase & Marsh, 1979).

Similarly, other non-conventional and non-accepted methods of participation such as a protest and rejection that are a pure articulation of citizens' view and opinions were also considered as another form in the domain of political participation (Kaase & Marsh, 1979). Consequently, the most recent development of political participation took place in the 1990s, when the diminishing marginal difference between political and non-political arena of contemporary society led to a redefining of political participation to contain civil actions such as social engagement and protest (Brady, 1998; Putnam, 2001).

Table2.1

Development of Definition of Political Participations

	Definition of Political Participation	Source of Definition	Focus of the Definition
Early 40s and 50s	Acts intentionally aimed at influencing governmental decisions	Easton, (1953)	The focus here is on the influence on governmental policies
Late 60s and 80s	Those legal acts by ordinary citizens with directly singular intention and aim to influence the selection of governmental official and/or the activities that they take actions of ordinary citizens by which they pursue to influence or support the government and activities of politics	Milbrath and Goel (1977)	The focus here is on the election of political leaders and the approval of their policies
Late 90s	As different series of activities of individual citizen that are intended or directed toward influencing political decision and outcomes in society	Verba, Schlozman and Brady, 1995	The focus is on supporting or opposing the state authorities, structures, and decisions regarding the benefits of otherwise of political decisions
2000	Wide range of activities through which people seek to influence the decision-making processes that shape their lives	Dalton 2000	The focus is on public, private and organisational sectors
2003	Political participation are the political activities that the citizens use to affect the structure or policies of government, or try to influence the election of government officials	Evans 2003	The focus is on the citizens' influence on the structure and policies of government
2010	Political participation are the behaviours with the purpose of shaping government policies either by affecting the selection of government officials or influencing their choice	Farthing 2010	The focus is on the behaviours of citizens in terms of choosing government official
2012	Political participation is a major strategic way whereby citizens may express their wishes and aspirations and affect the distribution of resources.	Wyngarden 2012	The focus is on the behaviour of citizens in terms of choosing government official
2014	Political participation are the online and offline political activities such as voting, interaction with elected officials, sharing political information or joining political discussion.	Thun 2014	The focus is merging political activities on internet and political activities offline
2015 Date	Political participation is a personalized activity that is carried out by individual citizens with the intent of mobilization and activating social networks of people in order to raise awareness about, or exercise political pressures for the solution of, political problem.	Theocharis , 2015	The focus is on creating awareness and exercising influence and mobilization through social network

The quick progression of the study of political participation in the past 50 years revolves around the importance of citizen involvement in the decision-making process of democracy in a democracy. As government grows in scope and in responsibilities the participation of citizens in the domain of governance also grows (Van Deth, 2014), this made political participation and democracy inseparable (Parry, Moyser, & Day, 1992). In this regard also Verba, and Nie, (1972) noted that the concept of political participation is the bedrock of democracy, therefore when few citizens participate in decisions, democracy is less, the more the citizens participate in decision making the more democratic a government is (Verba & Nie, 1972).

Political participation encompasses any action that relates to the political realm. Different actions can be regarded as political participation like the selection of leaders and representatives in government, conducting town hall meetings with a representative or writing an appeal and petition letters to the government and even holding protest against the government (Van Deth, 2001). Accordingly, Wright, Verba and Nie (1975) viewed political participation as forms of conduct planned to influence the choice of policies and/or governmental personnel. However, Rusk (1976) and Schonfeld (1975) view this perspective as narrow in encompassing a broad meaning of political participation by ignoring issues like civil protest, political violence, and other forms of behaviour that may affect the change or maintain the governmental personnel and or policies, outside the realm of government. Therefore, Rusk (1976) regarded political participation as all deliberate action by different

citizens planned to inspired either directly or indirectly political options at diverse levels in the political system of a nation.

In the same vein, political participation was regarded as an action by individual citizens aimed at persuading the actions or the structure of national or local government (Nelson, 1979). In the bid to define political participation, Adams (1979) and Conge (1988) outlined six major issues which are split into twelve components that must be regarded before defining the concept of political participation they are: participation in an active or passive form; with aggressive or non-aggressive behaviour; with structural or non-structural objects; with governmental or nongovernmental aims; through mobilization or voluntary actions; and with intended action or unintended action. By deducting from the above twelve components, Conge (1988) conceptualized political participation as single or combined action at the local or national level that supports or opposes authorities, structure and /or decision regarding allocation and distribution of public goods in the state.

Scholars have written on ways in which people participate in the political process. For example, Falade (2014) recognized six categories of participants in politics. These are: (1) the inactive participants that do not take no part in any political activity. (2) the voting specialists, those that get excitedly engaged only in voting as against any other political activities (3) the parochial ones, that engages in politics occasionally when it affects their personal interest (4) the communal that engaged in voting regularly (5) the campaigners promoters, that aggressively involved in

political campaign only and (6) the complete activists, that get involved in all political activities and vigorously participate in campaign, voting, community activities and interaction with public officials.

Mangold and Faulds (2009) described social media as a better tool in promoting organizational values and goals in comparison to traditional media and that political parties also work in the form of democratic organization which is clear in its purpose and vision and maintaining fairness, transparency, accountability and integrity. Similarly, a broad understanding of political participation is that political participation is situated under the umbrella of freedom to speak out, freedom of gathering and association; the power to partake in the conduct of public affairs; and the chance to enrol as a party member, or as a candidate, to partake in campaign, to elect and to be elected and to hold public office at all levels of government. The continuous extension of the kinds of participation has challenged many researchers with the dilemma of using either a definition that will invariably exclude many new kinds of political participation or even expand their concepts to cover almost everything (Van Deth, 2014).

Although political science scholars have tried at different times to provide a comprehensive definition of political participation, the issue remains unresolved among them. It can be understood, therefore, that political participation is any action that provide people with the chance to express their views through contribution to the political process. In an attempt to explain political participation, one has to

differentiate between participation in a straight political setting, such as voting or joining parties or joining groups of interest, and participation in social settings. We can refer to the former as direct, and to the latter as indirect political participation and both forms of participation are manifested in democracy (Pausch, 2012).

Therefore, direct political participation is a situation where a citizen become politically motivated, expresses a political interest, political aim and participates directly whether with the aim of making a favourite political candidate or party win an election, or with the aim of supporting his/her own political belief or view within a certain area.

Furthermore, direct political participation is usually considered as conventional and unconventional. Therefore, when a citizen voluntarily engages in some social activities that have political implication, but not directly to express a political interest and a political aim, it is considered as unconventional form of participation (Van Deth, 2001). Moreover, in the indirect participation the main intention is not about politics, but rather, the motivation for the participation can be for another reason like self-fulfilment. This classification is also a point of agreement among scholars like Kaase and Marsh (1979) they also point to the fact that when looking at participation in a democracy, it can be direct or indirect, they refer to the direct participation, such as voting during elections or during the referendum, in this kind of participation it is the decision of the majority that counts and thus directly becomes law. However, in an indirect participation the activities are geared towards

participating in different interest groups, non-governmental organization (NGO) that may only have an indirect impact on the decision of the majority.

Broadly speaking, Dalton (2008) identified three types of political participation: First, conventional form of participation are activities that take place, particularly during election periods because citizen are expected to show their efficacy in the course of governance as a sign of good citizenship. Lamprianou (2013) noted that people with a strong commitment to politics will likely participate more in conventional form. Second, unconventional way of political participation are lawful activities that take place during election and non-election period, but they are often considered inappropriate like staging political protests. Lamprianou (2013) noted that people with low efficacy will likely participate more in unconventional form of participation. Third, an illegal form of political participation is unlawful activities that take place during election and non-election period, but they are often considered inappropriate like political assassination. However, Lamprianou (2013) observed that people will likely venture to illegal political participation when lawful means of participation failed. Furthermore, Van Deth (2001) and Lutz, Hoffmann, and Meckel (2014) undertake a review of different political activities that developed within the last 50 years of political participation activities.

Table 2.2
Development of Different Political Participation Activities

Year	Political participation Activities	Form of participation
1940	Voting	Conventional participation
1950 - 1960	Voting, campaigning, contacting official, working in elections Contacting public officials	Conventional participation
1970 - 1980	Voting working in elections, protest action, social movement, party membership contacting public officials	Conventional and unconventional participation
1990	Voting social engagement civil participation, working in elections, party membership, contacting public officials, donating money, protest meeting	Conventional and unconventional participation
2000 - Date	Voting social engagement, civil participation, working in elections, party membership, referendums, Donating money, Protest meeting, campaign, purchasing or boycotting products for political reasons and discussing politics with friends and family on internet and social media platforms.	Off-line and On-line. conventional and unconventional

Source: Van Deth (2001) and Lutz, Hoffmann, Meckel (2014) and Fox (2014)

Furthermore, the desire to participate in politics can be admirable to some people because of their conviction that participating in politics entails strong believe in the ideology of the government or a strong feeling of responsibility towards democratic citizenship (Bourne, 2010). Similarly, people's self interest in promoting a cause or interest in joining general activities of the public or friends also motivate political participation (Bourne, 2010).

On the other hand, some people's attitudes and motivation towards political participation is negative. Bode, Vraga, Borah and Shah (2014) relates this attitude to their non-commitment with any current situation of polity or because of their

apathy towards the political process entirely. In addition, Bode et al. (2014) attributed non participation of citizen in politics to the lack of efficacy in the structure of a given government. Furthermore, Krueger (2006) evaluated the evolvement of information and communication technology (ICT) and conclude that it has redefined the traditional scope of political participation because the internet and subsequent social media spaces have provided citizens with new opportunities of accessing and exchanging political information with each other.

In summary, the above review provided an insight into the conceptualization of political participation. It can be gathered that political participation is restricted to people endowed with the position and right of citizenship and this position and right of citizenship does not exist in isolation, it only exists in the context of a community with political status, and more importantly with the existence of government and political participation among citizen will manifest. Therefore, it can be critically concluded that the review has provided ground for understanding the role which the evolution of internet technology portends for political participation in the technology era.

2.3 Online Political Participation

Online political can be simply understood as political participation that takes place on the internet. This participation is a form of digital participation, which is mostly non-electoral, non-institutional and non-conventional in nature, and this type of political participation is on the increase (Pattie, Seyd, & Whiteley, 2003). Similarly,

Tolbert and Mcneal (2003) observed that citizens are embracing the online form of political participation more than conventional way of participation. As a result, a series of activities are now referred to as political participation. This has expanded the democratic horizon to become more varied to the extent that scholars like Scheufele and Nisbet (2002) and Di Gennaro and Dutton (2006) agitated for the proper review and conceptualization of online political participation or non-conventional participation.

Consequently, this study defined online political participation consistent with Lutz, Hoffmann, and Meckel's (2014) definition of online political participation as the creation, commenting, and sharing of content on political content on Facebook such as a political message, information, picture or text on personal, group or friend's wall, directed at a precise audience and motivated by a social purpose.

Accordingly, the development of Internet technology in the 90s from Web1.0 and subsequent Web 2.0 has a great impact on politics, and participation in politics (Jackson & Lilleker, 2009) because the Internet has become a "Discussion square" with a highly democratic opportunity (Anduiza, Gallego, & Cantijoch, 2010). In fact, the Internet has been added as a tool of political participation, especially among youth (Loader, 2007; Vromen, Xenos, & Loader, 2015). It also vested youth with the opportunity to get involved in various political activities online, like discussing or expressing political opinion, which may have a substantial impact on the formulation

of policies and in the way the society is being governed (Hirzalla, & Van Zoonen, 2012).

Similarly, the notion “e-participation” is one of the notions in which users of the internet and social media coined so as to show the relationship between the concepts as they link with internet and social media (Edelmann, Krimmer, & Parycek, 2008). Other similar concepts such as “Netizen” (Lei, 2011), “e-voting” and “e-campaign” (Anduiza, Gallego, & Cantijoch, 2010) and “cyber democracy” (Ferber, Foltz, & Pugliese, 2007), were all concepts that came up as a result of the evolvement of social media technology. The concept of Netizen, which refers to the use of internet by individual in participating in social-political issues and contribute to the enhancement of the society as a citizen, is of relevance to this study. This is because with internet access, many people are becoming online citizens. Similarly, e-participation is also of significance to this study because it is an embodiment of political participation in democracy channelled through ICT apparatus. Lei (2011) described Netizen as means of making citizens politically active with the new form of technology that increases their participation in governance and societal development.

Also, Mangold and Faulds (2009) identified key functions of social media in promoting political participation and these are: Engaging people to send feedback on any online political issue in the form of like and dislike on the page and content posted on the page with the use of social media tools it can also be used as information sharing tool, and also to create a balance between traditional and internet based

promotion tool, while it can utilize for branding a political candidate or a political party or any governmental policy to the citizen using social media tools of branding.

Furthermore, in an effort to study online political participation, several empirical researches have been undertaken at different level of analysis, with quantitative and qualitative research methodology, using data across various countries and diverse research settings. Such studies discussed online political participation as an outcome construct measured by a variety of related predictors, such as election (Bessi & Ferrara, 2016; Bode & Epstein, 2015; Yang & DeHart, 2016; Dimitrova, Shehata, Strömbäck, & Nord, 2014; Vitak et al., 2011a; Weller, Bruns, Burgess, Mahrt, & Puschmann, 2014). For example, scholars have established the potentials of online platform for political participation. Bessi and Ferrara, (2016) stated that despite the perils related with the abuse of online social media Platforms, they have been widely contributed to democratization of political discussions and participation. Furthermore, Bode and Epstein (2015) suggest that the shift in political participation to the digital interactive environment, especially by using social media is a valuable concept that warrants thoughtful analysis and much more attention from political communication scholars. Also, Yang and de Hart (2016) in their examination of psychological and behavioral factors predictors of OPP found that political self-efficacy influence online political participation.

Furthermore, Facebook use was examined as predictor of online political participation among youth (Conroy et al., 2012; Harlow, 2012; Junco, 2012; Meth,

Lee, & Yang, 2015; Williams & Gulati, 2009; Yamamoto, Kushin, & Dalisay, 2015) For example, Harlow (2012) found that Facebook users' protest-related and motivational comments led to an offline protest. He concluded that social network site such as Facebook can be used to stimulate an online political protest to that can moved to an offline political protest. Also, Meth, Lee, and Yang, (2015) have submitted the importance of empirical examination factors influencing Facebook users' political participation intention which lead to actual political participation behaviour, they submitted that technological factors such as effort expectancy, performance expectancy, facilitating conditions and influence and social factors such as political interests and experience would influence Facebook users' political participation intention. Again, Yamamoto, Kushin, and Dalisay, (2015) have examined youth's online political expression and political media use on political participation, found that youth political expression online influenced the effects of their political participation.

Furthermore, studies that dwells on politics are always entangled in two important concepts civic engagement and political participation (Lall, 2014; O'Neill, 2006). Mostly the explanations of these two concepts overlap each other, therefore striking a conceptual distinction between them is important, especially for separating political aspect of the larger concept of civic engagement. Therefore, civic engagement consists of a lot of activities than political participation, thus, making it a broader phenomenon (Lall, 2014; Pattie, Seyd, & Whiteley, 2003).

Consequently, the above two conflicting positions imply that there are two patterns; rise in participation and decline in participation in relation to youth engagement in politics (Bennet, 2008). Subsequently, David (2013) suggests a way out of these two inconsistent positions which is that successive studies on new media and political participation should not measure youth political participation with traditional forms of online participation e.g. online newspaper, online radio. Instead, a new kind of measurement that exclusively views the concept of political participation, using the lens of social media, by the present generation of youth should be used. Particularly, because studies have identified that the interest of most youth's internet activities dwells mainly on social media (Iyengar & Jackman, 2004). Therefore, by conducting a study of this kind, it may provide an explanation for why a lot of studies found low participation in politics among this interesting group of people.

Additionally, Chun (2012) and Bakker and de Vresse (2011) have argued that the low participation of youth in politics may not be solely the fault of the youths, but rather on the way participation in politics is being regarded as only conventional activities such as membership of a political party, political campaign and voting. They found that youths are more likely to participate in engagement-based citizenship politics, which involved discussing political policies of the government, than participating in an institutional-based citizenship politics, which involved voting as being practiced mostly by old people. Thus, the conclusion about non-participation of youth in politics may not be accurate at all time, instead, researchers should focus on

engagement based citizenship politics. Apparently, whenever research on political participation is defined and conducted from the perspective of conventional participation it shows a decline in youth's participation in politics (Dalton, 2008).

Furthermore, Pempek, et al. (2009) identifies six purposes of using social media among youth: a) to meet new people and create relationships; b) to maintain an existing relationship with people; c) to use it for fun and following the trends of issues; d) to gain popularity by having more friends; e) to express views through updating profiles and status, and f) to share knowledge and information with each other. Therefore, the perception which Facebook users have of their friends play an important role in the usage of Facebook, when users perceives no friends for their profile, they are less likely to make use of Facebook. The type of perceived friends on Facebook page also determines the type of information and content which users will likely share on their Facebook pages (Pempek et al., 2009). This showed that youth are using Facebook as a means of socialization and as a medium for acquiring information. Therefore, when a student use Facebook for the purpose of meeting new friends and therefore goes on to like or share a status or a profile of a friend with an interest in politics, this will likely motivate the other friend in engaging in political discussion (Kushin & Kitchener, 2009).

On the other hand, despite the identified roles of internet and social media platforms in enhancing political participation, some scholars have indicated doubt on the impact of the internet and its usability in the enhancement of political participation (Kenski

& Stroud, 2006). In their studies, Albrecht (2006) and Di Gennaro and Dutton (2006) have shown inconsistent findings on the internet's applicability to encourage political participation. Consequently, Hargittai and Hinnant (2008) noted that the differences in the methodologies employed in conducting studies about the internet and political participation may be connected with lack of consistency of findings on the internet and its impact in influencing political participation. In addition, Bakker and de Vreese (2011) outlined that the internet has reduced the cost of getting political information and views and it makes political participation more convenient for citizens. It has therefore underscore the argument against non-effectiveness of the internet on political participation online.

Accordingly, the background of many studies on online political participation, this current study included, lies in understanding the definition of political participation and online political participation and also in clarifying the arguments which shrouded the definition of political participation in this digital age. The Political scientists in the past were preoccupied with defining political participation from the perspective of purely electoral participation (Kaase & Marsh, 1979). However, in the present time the definition of political participation has significantly changed from what was known years back (Grossklags et al., 2011) its meaning encompasses a series of activities that continue to expand with time (Gil de Zúñiga, 2012).

Consequently, Di Gennaro and Dutton (2006) and Flanagin (2005) noted that the significant usage of social media for political participation requires a broader

conceptualization and understanding of the concept in the society. They argued that the general research measurement of political participation popularize by scholars such as (Conge, 1988; Verba, Schlozman, & Brady, 1995; Wright et al., 1975) did not capture the series of activities that are happening in today's political arena. The above arguments point to the fact that political participation can occur in more different ways than what was obtainable in the past. Therefore, political participation is an ever-changing concept and this change has brought about a shift in the way citizen participate in politics today. Hence the need for broad understanding of the meaning of political participation to accommodate online political actions. Furthermore, there were many studies conducted across nation on social media and online political participation in developed and advanced democratic countries for example, in USA, UK, and Germany, Hyun (2012) studied the web of hypertext links to topmost political blogs in the United Kingdom, the United States, and Germany, they found that the US top political blogging network revealed higher interconnectedness than political blogging network in the UK and Germany. While, Calenda and Meijer, (2007) in their examination of whether the Internet generates new ways of political participation in Italy, Spain and Netherland, they conclude that, although, Internet leads to additional political participation online, but does not cause a shift from 'old' way of political participation to 'new' way of political participation.

Another study by Tenscher, Mykkänen, and Moring, (2012) compared how political parties structured and strategized political campaign in Austria, Finland, Germany and Sweden of the campaign during the parliamentary elections, they found peculiar

differences in campaign structures and strategies in each country and also in the size of the political parties. Additionally, Vromen, Xenos, and Loader, (2014), investigated whether social media stem or inverse forms of political inequality among young citizens in advanced democracies of Australia, the USA and the UK, their findings suggest a positive and strong relationship between social media platforms use and engagement in politics among young citizens across all three countries. Another study was on online political participation in 25 countries (Marien, Hooghe, & Quintelier, 2010). Similarly, some other studies were also conducted in industrialized nations like Japan, China, Singapore, and Hong Kong (Lee & Chan, 2005; Skoric, Ying, & Ng, 2009; Takahashi, 2010), also, in Latin American countries like Argentina, Chile, Mexico and Peru (Klesner, 2007). However, it is worthy to note that despite these huge studies on political participation and social media in advanced democracies nations, there were only a few similar studies that were conducted in non-advanced democratic countries known as new democracies. For example, in South Africa and Dominican Republic (Finkel, 2002), in Ghana and Tanzania (Ocran, 2014). Although, there are some few studies conducted on politics and social media in Nigeria, such as Ifukor (2010) and Okoro and Nwafor (2013), they only examined the relation between social media and elections alone.

This scarce of studies with data about non-advanced democratic countries made Valenzuela (2013) to conclude that, most researches on social media and online political participation were mostly conducted in advanced democracies (USA, UK, France, Germany), thereby neglecting the non-advanced democratic countries.

Similarly, Baumgartner and Morris (2009) noted that a lot of research in the field of online political participation and new media has been done on insignificant and culturally similar samples. Consequently, they concluded that there is still a need for integrating empirical inquiry from different non-advanced countries and demographic contexts to enrich the existing literature on social media and online political participation, therefore, studies with data about non-advanced countries are much needed.

Additionally, the conception of online political participation in social media demands a further clarification and distinction between the use of the internet as the first generation (Web1.0) for OPP and its use for political participation in social media as the second generation (Web 2.0). The clarification as argued by Wattal, Schuff, Mandviwalla and Williams (2010) is because the internet has a passive political influence on user's behaviour, while social media have active political influence. Cohen and Kahne (2012) emphasized that social media platforms have such interactive feature, (like sharing and posting) which make them active platforms compared to the internet (Web 1.0) applications which are passive platforms.

Evidently, social media platforms brought new forms of political participation. For example, online activity like clicking the "share" button of political message on Facebook to indicate extending a political choice is now considered as political participation (Effing, Van Hillegersberg, & Huibers, 2011). Additionally, Livingstone, Bober and Helsper (2011) noted that there is a wide-ranging of

communication activities on social media that can be regarded as political participation. In summation, Lutz, et al. (2014) conducted a systematic review of 132 OPP and civic engagement articles. They concluded that OPP is a huge opportunity for those on the side-lines of political system such as the youth to participate in politics online.

2.4 Youth and Online Political Participation

Various scholars considered the arrival of social media as a new source of political participation and also as a way of bringing young citizens nearer to political discussion and engagement (Quintelier & Vissers, 2008). Therefore, the expectation is that the social media will potentially increase the participation of young citizens who are not attracted to politics before. It was also established that youth use social media because of its interactive nature, which they find more gratifying compared to traditional or mainstream media (Raacke & Bonds-Raacke, 2008; Ruggiero, 2000). Additionally, youth were considered among creative and avid users of online network sites and are susceptible to its positive and negative consequences (Abusbiha & Mustaffa, 2014).

This means that youth are using social media because it is through social media that they can gratify some of their needs which they were not gratified before. Similarly, a study conducted by Calenda and Meijer (2009) found that the technology of internet had played a role in defining the interest and the participation of young citizens in politics different from the interest and participation of old ones. They conclude that

this has triggered the interest of researchers in finding out the extent to which the internet provided a new form of participating in politics for the young ones (Calenda & Meijer, 2009).

The strength of any democratic government lies in how the citizens are engaged in actively taking responsibility of building the society, resolving public problems, and participating in the political and electoral processes (Keeter, Zukin, Adolina, & Jenkins, 2002). Furthermore, the growth of youth's interest in politics attracted many studies, there has been a range of research, and document on the political engagement of young people (Keeter et al., 2002). These studies have established that among the greatest threats democracy faced is when citizens are weak in their ability to participate in politics, especially when this relegation is in the youngest generation (Jennings, Stoker, & Bowers, 2009). While all of these and other concerns are worthy of continuing study, this analysis focuses on what is regarded by many as the most fundamental features of social media and how they are being exploited in attempts to engage youth and citizens in online political participation.

Furthermore, several researches that were conducted on youth's aspects of political attitudes, values, knowledge, and practice found several emerging and intersecting developments. Some research findings showed that college students are skeptics about politics and indifferent when it comes to political participation (Pempek et al., 2009; Yamamoto & Kushin, 2014). While other studies indicated that there has been a recent increase in efficacy, voting and other activities of political participation

among students in the past few years (Longo & Meyer, 2006). This finding corroborates the importance of the generation of young people as a fundamental pillar of democracy that cannot be ignored. Scholars have advanced many reasons for the perceived impact of the internet on young people and why the internet has become a place for online activities of young citizens: First, it is established that the internet has enormous influence on young one, several studies on the internet spread in most countries show that almost all universal internet usage lies with the young people (Bakker & de Vreese, 2011). For example, in America, online political participation is a commonplace among youth, 67% of them engage in online network related activity (Smith, 2013). Second, the old people were participating in politics prior to the emergence of the internet, therefore, it is expected that internet will only have an inertia effect on their participation. However, the young people who grow in a pre-internet period and do not have prior deep-rooted political behaviour will be more influenced by the new media. Therefore, it is expected that the internet will have impact among these young people (Bakker & de Vreese, 2011).

Accordingly, one of the quickest growing ways of OPP by youth is through the use of online social media (Vitak et al., 2011). Previous studies (Barnard, 2012; Bennett, 2012; Bimber, Copeland, & Gibson, 2012; Bode et al., 2014) have shown that it has significantly impacted on the political participation among youth. In US predominantly, scholars (Calenda & Meijer, 2009; Vromen et al., 2015) have regarded social media platforms of the internet as the sources of stimulating the youth involvement in politics. In a similar vein, Bakker and De Vreese (2011), Vitak et

al. (2011), and Yamamoto et al. (2013) confirmed that the involvement of youth in the 2008 election in America is as a result of the enabling environment which the online platform of social media provided the youth with the opportunity to create and share political content online. Corroborating this, Gil de Zúñiga, Jung, and Valenzuela (2012) maintained that there is a significant rise among youth in the use of Online platforms to access different political information. They further noted that youth have identified use of online social media for accessing information participating in political discussion because it is less stressful and readily available. All these may not be unconnected with the fact that the online social media platforms have created unique opportunities for interactive political experiences.

In another vein, Cohen and Kahne (2012) and Vitak et al. (2011) have noted the limitation of the mode of political participation exhibited by the youth, they described the participation of youth as “informational” and coined the term “slacktivism” which refers to simple engagement in online for common gratification that lack commitment that will have little or no impact on affecting change or promoting a cause. However, Štětka and Mazák (2014) contend that the participation of youth can be viewed from a point of participatory politics, which enable them to exert their voice and influence on issues of political relevance in the governance of their nation.

Baumgartner and Morris (2009) opined that Slacktivism should not be viewed as non-political participation rather it is a new form of political participation happening online and capable of effecting change. In addition, Vie (2014) pointed that the

activism can happen digitally such as mere liking an online post or clicking on a status online which is a form of digital activism known as “slacktivism” might result into political participation, and this activity can also lead to creation of awareness about crucial issues in politics. Similarly, Tufekci and Wilson (2012) reported that online participation of youth on social media was positively related to individual decision about participating in protests and its success among Egyptians. A similar result was also obtained in a study by Valenzuela, Arriagada and Scherman (2012) where they found a significant association between Facebook use and political mobilization and protest activities among youth in Chile. Also in Guatemala, Harlow (2012) discovered that online social network was used to mobilize an online movement, which brought youth in an organized political protest for the end of violence and for the demand for justice in Guatemala. In Belgium, Quintelier and Vissers (2008) also found that OPP among youth has significant association with how they participate in politics offline.

2.5 Online Political Participation and Youth in Nigeria.

Online social media are commonly used by the youth in Nigeria (Dagona, Karick, & Abubakar, 2013), particularly for political participation, like political discussion, public awareness, sharing of political information and knowledge (Olowu & Fasola, 2012). In fact, the situation can be described as a “political revolution”, the revolution has brought with it an opportunity for the Nigerians in general and youth in particular a freedom of expression devoid of any censorship that is inherent in some of the traditional media in Nigeria (Ekwugha, 2014).

However, the proliferation of Facebook and other social media in Nigeria was intertwined with the emergence of Global System for Mobile Communication (GSM) in 2001 (Silas & Adejoke, 2013). When mobile telecommunication companies like Mobile Telecommunication Nigeria (MTN), Mtel Nigeria, and Econet Nigeria started operation in 2001 and consequently, many mobile phone users were connected online and by the year 2001 (Silas & Adejoke, 2013).

Nigeria has grown from third highest African country, with two hundred thousand internet users in the year 2000 to become the highest African country with 98 million internet users in 2018 (InternetWorldStats, 2018). This internet use has indicated a 49% growth rate between 2000 and 2018 (InternetWorldStats, 2018). Similarly, in 2014, Nigeria was the 9th country in the list of world countries with 114 million mobile phone users (Addictivelist, 2014). However, in 2018 Nigerian mobile phone users have grown to 144 million (NCC, 2018). This makes Nigeria one of the fastest growing market of mobile phone (Statista, 2014). In fact, the mobile phone manufacturing company of Nokia, has manufactured a Nigerian mobile Nokia phone fitted with three major languages in Nigeria, Hausa, Yoruba and Igbo as default languages of the phone in 2009 (Statista, 2014). Accordingly, Most of the mobile phones sold in Nigeria were affordable and also internet-enabled (CNN, 2015). This has paved way for a conducive environment for political revolution on the internet and Facebook for Nigerian youth (Dagona et al., 2013).

As a result, social media platform such as Facebook took over the political issues like political discussion and political campaign from the mainstream media such as radio and newspaper (Ogundimo, 2013). Furthermore, in Nigeria, the youth are considered as the fundamental pillar of the democratic government. Dagona et al. (2013) noted that the numerical strength of the Nigerian youth makes them a deciding factor and the direction of politics in the country and also in determining who wins or loses election in the country. However, scholars are of the view that the strength of the youth in politics is manifested in the use of social media platform for engagement and discussions with youth, which proved effective by its relative ease of access, and relative speed of information dissemination (Cohen & Kahne, 2012). Political candidates can easily engage the youth through social media in order to solicit their support. For example, in the 2015 general election in Nigeria, Alhaji Muhammadu Buhari, the presidential candidate of the All Progressives Congress (APC) party has a twitter handle @ThisIsBuhari which amassed over 45,000 followers in just four days. Similarly, the presidential candidate of the People Democratic Party (PDP) Goodluck Jonathan also has a twitter handle @JGoodlucktweets, which has about 40,000 more followers in four years (Aljazeera, 2014).

Therefore, social media have become a general assembly for youth where political views and opinions are shaped and political debates are encouraged among youth as far as political issues in the society are concerned (Cohen & Kahne, 2012). Another political landmark in the use of Facebook for OPP in Nigeria is during 2011 fuel price increment protest of “Occupy Nigeria Protest” (Chiluwa, 2015), the 2014 “Bring

Back Our Girls protest’ (Aljazeera, 2015), the “2015 general election in Nigeria” (BBC, 2015b), the “Movement of Nigerians against the bill at the National Assembly aimed at regulating the social media use (Allafrica, 2015) and “Occupy national assembly protests to sack Saraki” (Sunnygist, 2016). During all these political actions the Facebook platform was used effectively by the Nigerian youth to create awareness and to mobilize citizens towards expressing their general opinion against the government (Asuni & Farris, 2011). Therefore, Nigerian youth male and female utilizes Facebook platform as a daily means of increasing the level of awareness of the citizen for OPP and with the identification of the significance of social media as a tool in the hands of youth that enable them to champion and direct the cause of democracy in Nigeria (Dagona et al., 2013).

Another area of interest in the study of youth and OPP is the gender difference between male and female in OPP. Several empirical studies have been undertaken to examine the gender difference in political participation, although, most of these studies were conducted in developed nations for example, in Britain, France, Germany, Poland and Romania (Kaid & Holtz-Bacha, 2000), Australia, United States and Britain (Hill, 2003) and Italy (Albanesi, Zani, & Cicognani, 2012). However, other studies on gender difference in political participation were also conducted in the developing nations. For example, Nigeria, South Africa, Kenya, Mali and other 14 Sub-Saharan African countries (Coffe, & Bolzendahl, 2011). Interestingly, the finding of most of these researches indicates that the dimension and pattern of the gender differences in political participation in developed nations share certain

similarities with findings from Sub-Saharan African nations (Coffe, & Bolzendahl, 2011).

Several researchers have also identified what might account for gender difference in political participation between male and female in developed and developing nations. Verba et al. (1997) submits that female's lower levels of information about politics, efficacy and political interest, are important reasons for a gender differences in participation in politics. While, Pfanzelt and Spies (2018) attributed it to a process of gender socialization as children, as youth and as adults. In addition, female's lower levels of political participation and differences in political attitudes begins in early life and continue over the life time compared to male (Fridkin & Kenney, 2007; Hooghe & Stolle, 2004). Also, in their findings on gender differences in OPP, Coffe and Bolzendahl (2011) and Inglehart and Norris (2003) noted that males are significantly different from females in political activities. They concluded that males are more involved in political demonstrations, belonging to political parties and contacting political candidates and officials than females. Furthermore, many researchers have found significant differences between male and female in political participation (e.g. Albanesi, Zani, & Cicognani, 2012; Hill, 2003; Jennings, 1983; Kaid & Holtz-Bacha, 2000; Norris, 1991; Paxton, Kunovich, & Hughes, 2007; Pfanzel, & Spies, 2018; Studlar, McAllister, & Hayes, 1998; Verba, Burns, & Schlozman, 1997).

For example, Pfanzelt and Spies (2018) found that male youth in Germany, prefer institutional ways of political participation, such as casting vote campaigning and registering with political parties while female tend to prefer non institutional political participation like civic action, similarly, female receive low political support from their family and society, hence, they show less confidence in their motivation to participate in politics than male. Also, Verba, Burns, and Schlozman (1997) found a significant difference between male and female in all related political activities. Thus, gender differences in political participation. remains a meaningful source of interest in politics (Christy, 1985). Therefore, it is pertinent to examine gender difference in online political participation hence, the hypothesis that:

H_{1a} *There is a significant difference between male and female in online political participation*

2.6 Evolvment of Facebook Platform

Facebook had a humble beginning from the intellect of four Harvard University students Mark Zuckerberg and his colleagues Moskovitz, Dustin. Hughes, Chris, and Eduardo Saverin (Facebook, 2015). They had launched the network on February 4, 2004 exclusively for Harvard students, but it gradually invaded other universities around, but restricting the joining and use to only people with subscriptions to e-mail address of the university ending with (.edu). Progressively, Facebook developed to a social networking site with mission to giving people the chance of sharing and making the world more exposed and connected. Later, Facebook became one among the largest social media platforms in the world. In July 2010 Facebook announced its 500 million member, by the end of December 2011, Facebook has boasted of 845 million

monthly active users. However, As at September 2018, it had documented 1.5 billion daily active users on average and two billion monthly active users respectively (InternetWorldStats, 2015; InternetWorldStats, 2018; Statista, 2018). It is available in more than 70 languages, including English the lingua franca in Nigeria and Hausa language one of the major languages in Nigeria respectively (Facebook, 2015). It has provided the platform for people to stay connected with friends and family and to discover the happenings around the world, and to express their feelings and share what matters most to them (Facebook, 2015). In 2006, Facebook opened its site for the use of the public generally and introduced spaces for commercial interests (Smith, 2013).

Facebook provides several features that make users, particularly attracted to it, such as blogs, blogs, bulletins, photo albums and profiles. For example, the walls are comment sections on a user's profile that user's network of friends can have access and can write on it. People can comment on member's profile when they visit or view his or her wall Furthermore, users can set a privacy settings which can include or exclude any user from viewing some parts of their profile they can also share photos (Pempek et al., 2009). The other feature includes messaging, chatting, video calling and video viewing (Joinson, 2008).

Consequently, Vissers, and Stolle, (2014) in their study about the effect of Facebook, argues that Facebook Platform has brought a new combined feature of interpersonal and mass communication features which permits users to utilize several computerized

mediated forms of communication, such as posting political messages on individual's profile page or another friend's wall. These forms of activities exposed user to online political participation.

In the same vein, Salman and Saad (2015) and Vitak et al. (2011) specifically identified several political participation activities that occur through Facebook which include: posting of message on a friend's wall or on personal profile page, sharing political view and opinion, creating a political group page, joining political group, becoming a friend to a political candidate, and commenting about politics. Consequently, Facebook has offered new dimensions about political participation (Conroy, Feezell, & Guerrero, 2012). Interestingly also, Smith (2013) stated that 66% of the world's youth population use Facebook. Therefore, it is not surprising when Vissers, and Stolle (2014) found that there is a positive relationship between Facebook use and OPP among youth. Similarly, in what seems to be an update to the above finding, Hamid, Ishak, and Yazam (2015) have found that by using Facebook and other social media platform undergraduate youth were able to adopt new ideas from other users, thus, they became creative in their ways of posting and sharing information online. Although, Theocharis and Quintelier (2014) in their study, they stated that use of Facebook by youth is negatively related to political participation. But, they reported that Facebook use is related positively to entertainment-oriented purpose. Nevertheless, from the above review, the popularity of Facebook has been established, especially among the youth this has made them to rapidly participate and

establish their presence on social media platform like Facebook in order to demonstrate their savviness on social media.

In conclusion, the evolvement of Facebook serves as a platform where youth can express their political views and opinions devoid of any governmental control that usually exist in the mainstream media. Therefore, Facebook became the medium of choice for the youth to become better disseminators and consumers of information online.

2.7 Facebook Usage and Online Political Participation

Social media such as Facebook platforms were identified as avenues for mediated social communities (Boyd & Ellison, 2008), where people with similar interest can gather and discuss issues (Fenton, 2011). They can also communicate with others using flexible features of posting text, photograph, or videos and providing links to other sites (Ellison et al., 2007). As a result, researchers became interested in knowing the reasons and motivations behind individual's usage of social networking site (Lin & Lu, 2011). Therefore, Vitak et al. (2011) observed that the popularity of Facebook has increased in 2008, when it became an avenue for discussing and sharing political and social issues. Consequently, researchers became interested in how social media sites such as Facebook permitted users to share their political views online (Kushin & Kitchener, 2009; Williams & Gulati, 2009). Others were interested in how Facebook usage can influence youth participation for political presence on social media (Edelmann, Krimmer, & Parycek, 2008; Kahne & Middaugh, 2012; Waller,

2013). Increasingly, researchers continue to focus on Facebook and its usage in different theoretical and methodological examination. One of these theoretical areas of interest is what gratification user gets from Facebook usage (Bonds-Raacke & Raacke, 2010; Dunne et al., 2010). For example, Bonds-Raacke and Raacke (2010) in their study were interested in the reasons and gratifications of Facebook among students, they found that the students' common reasons for Facebook usage are to be able to be in touch with longstanding friends and also with recent friends or make new ones.

However, several studies have empirically examined Facebook usage as predictor for the different online outcome. For instance, Facebook usage for educational, entertainment, psychology and human behaviour motives (Arteaga Sánchez, Cortijo, & Javed, 2014; Bonds-Raacke & Raacke, 2010; Hew, 2011; Hussain, Loan, & Yaseen, 2017; Manasijević, Živković, Arsić, & Milošević, 2016; Sharma, Joshi, & Sharma, 2016; Towner, VanHorn, & Parker, 2007; Wise, Skues, & Williams, 2011). From these studies, Hussain, Loan, and Yaseen et al. (2017) examined the Facebook usage by undergraduates and they found that their usage is for information sharing, promotion of social, political, religious and environmental awareness. Similarly, Sharma et.al. (2016) have found resource sharing, perceived enjoyment as an important predictor of Facebook usage for academic purposes. In addition, Wise et al. (2011) found that Personality factors influenced Facebook usage patterns among students and that Facebook usage did not correlate with educational purpose was found to be largely for social purposes. Again, Manasijević et. al. (2016) examined

the student's usage of Facebook and their finding discovered a positive relationship between Facebook usage and student collaboration through academic groups and implementation of academic activities in activities. Furthermore, they also show less interest in using the Facebook for academic purpose, social posting of text and pictures or dating purposes.

Several researchers have examined Facebook usage construct with different conceptualization using different dimensions and various empirical indicators which was hinged on diverse theoretical underpinnings, for example, Ariff, Shan, Zakuan, Ishak, and Wahi (2014) measured Facebook usage with the dimensions of Technology Acceptance Model (TAM). Similarly, studies such as (Alemdar & Köker, 2013; Basilisco & Cha, 2015; Katz, Haas, & Gurevitch, 1973; Katz, & Foulkes, 1962; Krause, North, & Heritage, 2014a; SheNyland, 2007; Quan-Haase & Young, 2010; Sheldon, 2016; Spiliotopoulos, Karnik, Oakley, Venkatanathan, & Nisi, 2013; Tanta, Mihovilović, & Sablić, 2014; Urista, Dong, & Day, 2009), all measured Facebook usage construct using the dimensions of Uses and Gratification Theory (UGT) with some modifications on the dimensions. For instance, Katz, Haas, & Gurevitch, (1973) and Mondy, Woods and Rafi (2008) adopted five uses and gratification need dimensions; cognitive, social integrative, personal integrative, affective and escapist. Whereas, Spiliotopoulos et al. (2013) measured Facebook usage construct with four uses and gratification need dimensions; social interaction, contribution, discovery and entertainment. Basilco and Cha (2015) also measured it with four dimensions; seeking friends, entertainment, information and convenience.

Additionally, Ko, Cho, and Roberts (2005) measured it with four dimensions; social interaction, entertainment, information and convenience. Likewise, Kaye and Johnson (2005) also adopted four modified dimensions of uses and gratification theory; surveillance, guidance information seeking, entertainment and social utility. However, Krause, North, and Heritage (2014) in their examination of Facebook usage and gratification of music application adapted only three modified uses and gratification need dimensions; entertainment, communication and habitual diversion, In addition Hashim, Tan and Rashid (2015) also measured it with three dimensions; cognitive, social integrative and affective. Consequently, Facebook usage in this study refers to the Facebook usage for accessing knowledge and information to satisfy the information need, socialize with family, friends and relations need, personal credibility and personal status need, affective, pleasure and emotional need, as well as an escape from boredom, problems and relaxation need of a user online (Katz et al., 1974).

However, several studies have empirically examined Facebook usage as predictor for political participation (e.g Ali, Jan, & Iqbal, 2013; Balci & Saritas, 2015; Bergsson, 2014; Donges & Schade, 2014; Kamiloglu, Fatma, Erdogan, 2014; Lahabou & Wok, 2011; Matthew, Kushin, & Kitchener, 2009; Nitschke, Theocharis, & Lowe, 2016; Williams & Gulati, 2009; Yang & DeHart, 2016). For example, Tang and Lee (2013) examined how different factors like exposure to political information sharing, network of friends and direct connection with actors in politics relate to online and

offline political participation on Facebook, their findings revealed that Facebook usage significantly relates to direct connection with political actors on Facebook. Similarly, Ali et al. (2013) in their study on Facebook usage on political participation also found significant relationship between Facebook usage and liking political parties and political figures in Pakistan. Similarly, Kamiloglu, Fatma and Erdogan, (2014) submitted that despite the popularity of Facebook in turkey, but the level of political participation of youth in Facebook is unknown, the outcome of their survey showed different dimension of participation among youth and that demographic factors are important factors in “active” participation.

Various empirical research endeavours have attempted to measure Facebook usage with the dimensions of cognitive, social integrative, personal integrative, affective and escapist dimensions. For example, Sudzina and Razmerita (2012) examined escapist motive for playing social games on Facebook they found that mundane breaking, pleasure seeking, stress relieving as the escapist motives of facebook usage for playing games. Also Jafarkarimi, Sim, Saadatdoost and Hee, (2016) examined how Facebook usage brought pleasure to people which lead to Facebook addiction, using the Facebook addiction scale, they found a significant relationship between Facebook usage and addictive behavior on Facebook. In addition, Malik and Mahmood (2012) examined escapist motive of Facebook usage and they found that leisure seeking is positively related to Facebook usage.

On the part of the cognitive usage dimension, Zarouali, Van den Broeck, Walrave, and Poels (2018) studied Facebook chatbots effectiveness usage for brands using cognitive usage indicators of perceived usefulness, (PU) perceive ease-of-use, (PEOU) perceive helpfulness (PU), adapted from consumer acceptance of technology (CAT-model) and dimensions of affective usage PAD (pleasure, arousal, dominance). They found that PU and PH are positively related to attitude toward Facebook chatbots usage, while PEOU is negatively related to Facebook chatbots usage, while they found that PAD dimensions influence the attitude of consumers toward brand chatbot on Facebook. Similarly, Mazman and Usluel (2010) found that Facebook usage for educational purpose positively related to motive for adoption of Facebook.

Moreover, additional studies within the premise of uses and gratification theory have adopted the affective dimension of Facebook usage construct. Akin and Akin (2015) studied mediated role of social safeness as it relates between Facebook usage and life satisfaction, they adopt a facebook addiction scale and social safeness and pleasure scale (SSPS), their findings show that SSPS scale and life satisfaction were negatively predicted by Facebook usage, while social safeness mediated the relationship between Facebook usage and life satisfaction. Also, Zarouali et al. (2018) in a recent study also adopted the Facebook usage affective dimension of PAD (pleasure, arousal, dominance) and they found that pleasure has a positive relationship with attitude toward Facebook experience and intention for continue use, while dominance has a direct relationship with arousal and pleasure, whereas, arousal has direct relationship with pleasure.

Mondi, Woods and Rafi (2008) found that the five uses and gratification theory dimensions i.e. social integrative, cognitive, personal integrative, affective and escapist (i.e. entertainment) are significantly related to perceived e-Learning experience on Facebook. While, Hashim, Tan and Rashid (2015) also found that cognitive, affective and social needs via attitude directly influence adult learners' intention to use mobile learning. Again Ko, Cho and Roberts (2005) found that the uses and gratification needs of information, convenience, entertainment and social interaction, influence user's intention to stay long on websites to satisfy these needs accordingly. They also found that individual with high information motivation is more likely to involve in the forms of human interaction on a website.

Accordingly, Kaye and Johnson (2005) in their examination of four dimensions of UGT on assessing online platforms for political information, found that guidance information seeking, surveillance, entertainment and social utility motivation significantly relate to amount of time spent in Facebook use, similarly, they significantly influence interest in politics and the intention to vote during election. Specifically, Hoffmann, Lutz, Müller, and Meckel (2017) adapted escapism need one of the five uses and gratification need motivation of media use to examine escapism and online political participation. They extended Facebook escapist use (FBEU) with three dimensions; consumptive, participatory and productive, they argue that Facebook escapist (consumptive, participatory and productive) will influence online

political participation. Their result show that consumptive escapist has negative effect on OPP while productive escapist has positive effect on OPP.

In summary, given the positive relationship of the uses and gratification motives of cognitive, social integrative, personal integrative, affective and escapist usage of Facebook on various political outcomes, it is expected that applying these five uses and gratification theory motives of Facebook usage is expected to have an influence on youth online political participation. In the light of the above, in this study, it is hypothesized as follows:

- H_{1b}:** *Facebook cognitive usage significantly relates to online political participation among youth in Nigeria.*
- H_{1c}:** *Facebook social integrative usage significantly relates to online political participation among youth in Nigeria.*
- H_{1d}:** *Facebook personal integrative usage significantly relate to online political participation among youth in Nigeria.*
- H_{1e}:** *Facebook affective usage significantly relate to online political participation among youth in Nigeria.*
- H_{1f}:** *Facebook Escapist usage significantly relate to online political participation among youth in Nigeria.*

Furthermore, researchers were not only interested usage of Facebook for online political participation. In addition, they are also interested in the difference between male and female in the pattern of the Face usage. For example, Cicognani et al. (2012) in their study on gender difference in youth's online political participation found that the political activities of girls were highly influenced by their parents' view on online political participation, while boys were not influenced by their parents, but they

influenced by different civic and social elements. Additionally, male basically hold the greater position in online political conversation because Smith (2011) found that males post lengthy messages online, compared to females, and they typically begin line of discussion, by stating their opinion and views as fact. The result of this domination on females in an online discussion is revealed through Tsai, Liang, Hou and Tsai's (2015) examination of an online discussion group. They found that females tended to leave online discussions as soon as a more male-domination of the conversation began.

In addition, the female differs with male in how the male political discussants repeatedly used technical terms that display their self-promotion and self-status over female in the online conversation (Tsai et al., 2015). Similarly, Coffe and Bolzendahl (2011) noted that even the tone of language in online political participation, males are specifically recognized as employing impersonal and language aggressive language, when addressed with this language, females were more possible to respond by dropping out of the discussion or keep silent. In studies of gender difference in online political conversations, Marien, Hooghe and Quintelier (2010) noted that females are far more polite; often acknowledging, apologizing, and abstaining from impolite online conduct compared to males.

It is therefore important to examine gender differences in Facebook usage based on that the study Hypothesize:

H^{1g}: *There is a significant difference between male and female in Facebook Usage*

2.8 Facebook Intensity and Online Political Participation

Scholars have paid attention into what leads to frequent stay on Facebook and its relationship in creating emotional connectedness on the individual, which may relate to certain influences in the formation of his behaviour and attitude in the society. For example, Raacke and Bonds-Raacke (2008) in their study on exploring friends networking sites, found that frequent use of Facebook has certain influence on the formation of emotional connection with the site.

This can be easily seen through the following painted scenario: The ‘digital citizens’ mostly young persons who are frequently online, use laptops and ‘smart’ phones that are connected to the internet, as just a tool for guidance and direction in life. Therefore, when they share their ‘status’ i.e. present emotion or activity, on their Facebook and follow the ‘threads’ i.e. comments and likes of others, they begin to form the thoughts and feelings that their “status” has become a guide and direction to the diverse group or the public that share their status and this thinking will have relational factor between the frequency of individual stay on Facebook and also emotional connectedness of individual to Facebook (Mustafa et al., 2013).

Consequently, several studies have empirically examined Facebook intensity as predictor for different online outcome with various empirical indicators, For instance, self-presentation styles, loneliness and privacy (Błachnio, Przepiorka, Boruch, & Bałakier, 2016), support seeking status (Blight, Jagiello, & Ruppel, 2015), emotional and affective attitude (Dhir & Tsai, 2017), reciprocal relationship of loneliness (Lou,

Yan, Nickerson, & McMorris, 2012), Facebook "likes" on consumer brand (Phua & Ahn, 2016), future life satisfaction (Seder & Oishi, 2012) and video games in promoting political participation (Skoric & Kwan, 2011). These studies have involved Facebook intensity to examine different aspects of human behaviour and mental issues, supportiveness, uses and gratification of Facebook, psychological well-being, social capital and social psychology. For example, Lou et.al. (2017) found that Facebook intensity has a positive impact on loneliness, however, no reciprocal relationship was found between Facebook intensity and loneliness. Similarly, Seder and Oishi (2012) found that Facebook intensity is a robust predictor of future life satisfaction.

In addition, other specific empirical studies have examined Facebook intensity in relation to political participation online (Ajami, 2012; Al-Fadhli & Al-Saleh, 2012; Chapman & Coffé, 2016; Kim, 2016; Lahabou & Wok, 2011; Skoric & Kwan, 2011; Vitak et al., 2011a). For instance, Chapman and Coffé (2016) in their examination of intensity of using profile picture for political campaigns, found that Facebook intensity has a significant and positive effect on the possibility of changing one's profile picture to raise political awareness. Therefore, there is an opportunity for Facebook user to participate in politics by changing a profile picture on a Facebook wall to support a campaign which is significantly related to young people who are politically participating in offline politics compared to those who are not politically participating offline. Also, Al-Fadhli and Al-Saleh (2012) found a positive relationship between Facebook intensity by the students and political engagement in

Kuwait. Their findings entail that Facebook has the potential of becoming a influential platform for political participation and campaign.

Likewise, the individual feeling and sense of self-esteem, may often relate to individuals regular use of Facebook. A study conducted by Mehdizadeh (2010) found that there is a significant negative connection between self-esteem and the amount of time a user spent on Facebook per session, and those Facebook users with lower self-esteem also present content which does not signify self-promotion of the user on Facebook pages. However, the frequency of the intensity of Facebook use can enhance self-esteem, especially when it is related to the social function of the self, because Gonzales and Hancock (2011) found that frequent posting and updating pages on a social networking site (SNS) like Facebook gives individuals the chance to represent self-material which is also found to increase self-esteem. Also, the continued patronage of Facebook by its over 1.9 world billion users (Internet World Stats, 2017), is also suggestive that the users belong to an attached Facebook user's network, which is labelled as "Friends," "Fans," "Contacts," "Followers on any Facebook page of a user.

Furthermore, Pew research found that 91 percent of US youth who use Facebook, does so for the purpose of attachment to friends (Lenhart & Madden, 2007). In addition, Rauniar, Rawski, Yang, and Johnson (2014) noted that Facebook friendship is generally based on an strong attachment with other friends. For example, on Facebook, the user has to first send a friendship request to another

Facebook member to be a Facebook friend and such a friendship request has to be accepted by the receiver to get “attached.” as a friend. Therefore, the average number of friends that are attached in a user’s wall is 130, while an average user has a friendship attachment to 80 groups, or events on Facebook (Internet World Stats, 2017).

Over the years, researchers have identified the importance of Facebook intensity in enhancing the social and emotional connection between friends (Bonds-Raacke & Raacke, 2010; Young, 2011). Hence, it has been widely used as a tool for maintaining friendship. In the study on the use of social networking sites (SNS) for friendship maintenance, Joinson (2008) reports that the most frequent use of SNS, such as Facebook is for friendship maintenance purposes. In fact, the friendship relationship on social media sites offer more advantages of friendship maintenance over traditional means of maintaining friendship, such as visiting a friend’s house (Wright, Craig, Cunningham, Igiel, & Ploeger, 2008). Particularly, Tong and Walther (2011) have identified four ways that social media facilitate friendship maintenance. First, users have control over what information will be disseminated for the maintenance of the friendship. Second, social media possess features that possibly facilitate the friendship maintenance through frequent contact between friends. Third, they also possess features that encourage friendship interaction e.g. involvement and feedback. Fourth, they give users the ability to post and share messages, videos, photos, and links.

Specifically, Facebook Intensity of emotional connection with individual's everyday life has attracted the attention of scholars (Abdulahi, Samadi, & Gharlegghi, 2014; Ogedebe, Emmanuel, & Musa, 2012; Puyok, 2008). For example, Shields and Kane (2011) in their study, found a positive relationship between integration of Facebook in student life and their academic performance. They found that every day students starts their day watching online news and it was found that this connectedness with social site has a positive relationship with their performance and that the activity enhance their performance, learning and social awareness (Shields & Kane, 2011). Although, frequent use of Facebook was found to be a factor in creating and sustaining social relations, it may also consume students' time and take them away from their studies (Abusbiha & Mustaffa, 2014). Additionally, some studies have elucidated on how the rate of time in which individual put social media in use often lead to psychosocial consequences like bridging which happens when individuals from a different social context or background make acquaintances between people within social networks or bonding which occurs when strongly tied individuals offer emotional care for one another (Aubrey & Rill, 2013).

The impact of intensity of emotion to Facebook and its outcome of having friends has also led scholars into investigating how the relationship between spending time on Facebook and Facebook friendship can lead to political participation and social capital (Lewis, Gonzalez, & Kaufman, 2012; Young, 2011). For example, Young (2011) concluded that the way Facebook is used has a significant impact in strengthening existing friendship because it substitutes the former traditional means

of strengthening friendship such as telephone and face to face. In fact, many studies have examined the way emotional connection with Facebook and forming and maintaining social capital (Ellison et al., 2007; Mesch, 2009).

Literature on the intensity of attachment to friends on social media such as Facebook (Bode, 2008; Shpigelman, 2018) these studies have shown that such attachment to friends on Facebook relate positively to social capital, a popular concept in political science as well as communication study, which has inherent relationship to the study of political communication and participation, was believed to have originated from Hanifan (1916) who coined the term emphasize the importance of community participation in political activities for the sustenance of democracy. However, it has been propagated in current years by the studies of Robert Putnam, as those real issues that count and matter most in the daily lives of people (Putnam, 2001). It consists of social relations which refers to the relationship that links persons in a society such as networks of friends. Therefore, it can be summarized that the attachment to friends an individual has on Facebook, may influence his motivation to participate in social networking activities and also in political activities.

This similar scenario led to the researchers to be sceptical of the relationship between the times spent on social media site leads to the decline in social and political activities, thus affecting an individual's ability to develop and maintain social capital and political participation. Therefore, studies (Bonds-Raacke & Raacke, 2010; Effing, Hillegersberg, & Huibers, 2011; Gustafsson, 2012; Skoric, Ying, & Ng, 2009;

Valenzuela, Kim, & de Zúñiga, 2013; Valenzuela, Park, & Kee, 2009; Vitak et al., 2011; Zhang & Chia, 2006; Zhang et al., 2009) have examined the use of Facebook as a social media platform and its correlation to increase social capital and political participation. One of the major findings of these studies is that youth devote a substantial part of their daily life using or relating to social media. In particular, Effing et al. (2011) and Vitak et al. (2011) found a significant relationship between political participation and time spent using Facebook. Similarly, Bonds-Raacke and Raacke (2010) found that 87% of Facebook users spent over two hours and thirty minutes per day on Facebook with each user having an average of 235 friends linked to their profiles.

While Valenzuela, Kim, and de Zúñiga (2013) found that Facebook platform has paved way for increased political participation among users. In their study, Valenzuela, Park and Kee (2009) found that individual rates of Facebook use has been found to be related to civic participation. Therefore, it is evident that the volume of time that users spent while using Facebook and the number of friends they have on Facebook are important determinants in their participation in politics online.

In a study, Pempek et al. (2009) found a correlation between students intensity of Facebook and establishment of social relationship among peers mostly by communicating via public comments, this finding explains how Facebook can serve as a platform for political participation because through the relationship among

Facebook friend people may be influenced to comment on political issues and messages thus influencing their participation in politics online.

Similarly, looking at Facebook from friendship point of view, findings from various studies on political participation and political campaigns on Facebook suggest that Facebook could provide opportunity for people who are habitually less attracted to politics to get involved (Ross, & Bürger, 2014; Utz, 2009). For example, the influence of friends on Facebook was demonstrated in a considerable work undertaken by Obama's 2008 and 2012 online political participation campaign, Facebook was used as a strategic tool whereby specific request were made to friends or followers on Facebook to "like" and "share" Obamas messages (Utz, 2009), thus, extending his reach and influencing those friends to participate in his campaign (Utz, 2009).

Another dimension on how attachment to friends on Facebook influence political participation at more active scale. Woolley, Limperos, and Oliver (2010) observed that there is now a spread of politically dedicated Facebook groups that have been contributory in bringing together citizens to follow online actions, thus making Facebook important vehicle for political participation. It can be deducted therefore, that these public comments on political activities emanates among different friends who used Facebook for social relationship.

Against this background, emotional connection with Facebook, the number of friends an individual has attachment with them on Facebook are important dimension in this study. Therefore, the following hypotheses are proposed:

H_{2a}: *Facebook Intensity significantly relates to online political participation among youth in Nigeria.*

In another vein, the consistent traces of differences between male and female which were the results of researches on differences in gender in political participation persistently indicate less participation of women compared to men (Jennings, 1983). These differences were early discussed in the 1970s studies of Wright, Verba and Nie (1975) and Ackelsberg (1987), where they noted that apathy and inhibition were the main explanations offered as reasons for gender differences in political participation. While the apathy explanation suggests that women simply participate less intensively because of their inherent lack of interest in politics, the inhibition explanation considered that women are intensely interested in politics, but they are inhibited from participating because of different external limitations and self-restraints (Wright, Verba, & Nie, 1975).

Consequently, researchers continue to build on this inhibition explanation as the reasons for less participation of women in politics. For example, Phillips (1991) and Peterson and Phillips (1995) noted that the way in which women run their private lives deprived them from participating in politics. Similarly, because of the division of labour between women and men in public life also institutes for most women a

dual burden of work and this in turn affect their chances to participate in politics (Peterson & Phillips, 1995).

However, subsequent studies on the issue, indicates an inaccuracy in the use inhibition explanation as the specific cause of gender difference in participation, rather, it is a combination of many elements seems to be the cause. Therefore, Verba, Schlozman and Brady (1995) identified three likely elements to clarify the gender difference between men and women with regard to political participation; First, women tend to possess less civic skills, in public speaking, writing texts or conducting public activities. Second, expectations of gender role and family life tends to lessen the time at the disposal of women to engage in political activities. In addition, the third element is the responsibilities of childcare that mandate continuous attention and care to children may put women in a disadvantageous position in political participation (Verba, Schlozman, & Brady, 1995). Nonetheless, Verba, Burns, and Schlozman, (1997) in their study found empirical inconsistency in the above elements as causes of less political participation of women when compared to men. Furthermore, Young and Nussbaum (2011) claim that political establishments inevitably function in a gender-biased style, as the instituted rules, regulation and criteria for participating in politics systemically restrain the role in which women would play in politics.

Political interest and knowledge that enable interest in participation is another area where scholars offer evidence of differences between men and women in political

participation. For example, Dow (2009) found that men are classified as being doubled as “information rich” and that women are most prospective to respond to any political knowledge measuring questions with ‘I don’t know’ compared to men and thus inevitably multiply the size of differences that exist in political knowledge among men and women. The evolvement of internet communication is a departure from the conventional form of offline political participation in the online form of political participation. Vissers and Stolle, (2013) observed that the internet has provided a fresh platform of political participation online. The platform is generally considered as being impersonal and indirect, which may provide a different climate for male and female gender to participate on an equal level because its nature is not face-to-face activities (Vissers & Stolle, 2013).

Many researchers in the area of political science and political communication have focused their attention on gender difference between male and female in political participation with numerous studies such as (Beauregard, 2014; Cicognani, Zani, Fournier, Gavray, & Born, 2012; Coffe & Dilli, 2014; Coffe & Bolzendahl, 2011; Isaksson, Kotsadam, & Nerman, 2014; Marien, Hooghe, & Quintelier, 2010; Mendez & Osborn, 2010; Ondercin & Jones-White, 2011). For example, Mendez and Osborn (2010) examined the pattern of online political interaction between male and female, and found that men tend to contribute more in online discussion and they tend to participate actively in social media site forum and blogs than their female counterpart. In addition, men tend to have online self-efficacy while the female tends to have more internet anxiety compared to men.

Against this background, gender difference in Facebook intensity needs an examination in this study, therefore, the following hypothesis is proposed:

H_{2b}: *There is a significant difference between male and female in Facebook Intensity.*

2.9 Facebook Perception and Online Political Participation

The perception of using Facebook by people to share political information and connect with peers and friends for online political participation has popularized the platform among different social media platforms (Hoffman, Jones, & Young, 2013). Therefore, users of Facebook certainly have different perception towards the platform in their quest to participate in politics. In fact, it is through the perceptions of Facebook that users gathered from everyday experiences, sharing information among friends and acquaintances, or online discussion and interaction that the Facebook platform is able to swing the intents of people to participate (Johnston, Chen, & Hauman, 2013).

User perception refers to how social media user sees and observes the media and about how it is used (Haque, Sarwar, Yasmin, 2013). Therefore, the perception a user may have on social media differs according to the user's anticipation and experience regarding the medium. Therefore, in this study Facebook perception refers to how Facebook user's perceive privacy nature, available features of Facebook, the

accessibility nature of Facebook and information sharing provisions that are available on Facebook as a social media platform (Haque, Sarwar & Yasmin, 2013).

Several studies have empirically examined Facebook perception as predictor for different online activities on Facebook with various empirical indicators, For instance, on the perception of interaction privacy and disclosure (Christofides, Muise, & Desmarais, 2012; Golbeck & Mauriello, 2016; Johnston et al., 2013), perception of social competence (Yang & Brown, 2015), perception Facebook behavioural intention (Lampe, Ellison, & Steinfield, 2008; Suki, Ramayah, & Ly, 2012), for online identity and its effect (Shafie, Nayan, & Osman, 2012), perception of motives for disclosure (Krasnova, Spiekermann, Koroleva, & Hildebrand, 2010), perception of Facebook features (Suraworachet, Premisiri, & Cooharajanane, 2012) perception of Facebook for learning (Goh, Hong, & Goh, 2013; Pérez, Araiza, & Doerfer, 2013). For instance, Krasnova, et al. (2010) investigated what the perception of privacy risks of Facebook user and their motivation in revealing personal information, they found that convenience of maintaining and developing relationships and enjoyment of the platform motivates Facebook user to reveal personal information. They concluded that these benefits outweigh their perception of privacy risks in revealing personal information on Facebook.

Similarly, Lamfe et al. (2008) examined the perception of different activities on Facebook site by users over a period of three years. They found that uses of Facebook relatively remain constant over the period, with audience perception of the user

profile showing no difference over the period of the study. Additionally, Hamade (2013) in their assessment of students' perception of the use of social media such as Facebook, found that the student's perception of the site is that they view it as a platform for political and cultural activities and for involvement with family, relatives and friends for better relation.

Chan-Olmsted, Cho, and Lee, (2013) in their examination of how user perceive social media, such as Facebook, indicates that user can identify five distinct dimensions that the user may perceive about the social media. Such as participatory, commonality, openness, connectedness and conversational nature of social media. First, they noted that participation is the extent the degree to which users can engage in an active interaction as senders and receivers as opposed to being passive sender or receiver. One can therefore state that social media such as Facebook permits users to involve and share content with each other which facilitate the public to become more engaged democratized than ever before. That is why Koh and Kim, (2004) viewed participation as an online community voluntary-helping behaviour which provide meaningful information and knowledge for the online help-seeking users. Second, Chan-Olmsted et al., (2013) refers to communality, as a characteristic of Facebook which permits persons and organizations to recognize and communicate with the people whom they want to be politically linked with, that is, it offers a platform for users as an individual or as an organization to form groups quickly and to establish political relationships efficiently with others who share some form of political communality with them (Haque et al., 2013).

In essence, researchers have viewed Facebook as an effective platform of establishing communities such as online political communities (Boyd & Ellison, 2007). Although, Boyd and Ellison (2007) observed that the notion of communality has to be differentiated from the notion of community in online situations. Community is about the coming together of people that concentrated on a common goal and with a form of continuous and consistent in nature. While, communality is about establishing a link for persons and organizations with others who share some commonality, based on their particular needs and political interests at particular time of communication. For example, when a user posts an online political comment, the user may have something in common with others that share or comment on the post, but they might not necessarily belong to the same community, this means that Facebook provides a platform for users that have communality.

Thirdly, Chan-Olmsted et al. (2013) also identified openness as a characteristic which users perceive to be evidently manifest in Facebook. They noted that in its openness to users, Facebook allows for user political participation and for having a feedback with limited barriers in technological transferability and usage, that makes political comments and accessing political information easy. The perceived openness nature of Facebook is exemplified in the way people, especially the youth and young people, share their live activities on Facebook, and also in the way political parties and political candidates post campaign information on their pages and receive feedback in form of critics or support on Facebook (Li, Chen, & Popiel, 2015). In essence,

openness can be appreciated as the perceived easy nature of Facebook of sharing and receiving online contents, comment and information from its users (Li et al., 2015).

Fourthly, connectedness is another character that users perceive about Facebook, Chan-Olmsted et al., (2013) noted that Facebook offers social connectedness to its users that allows them to link to other sites, resources, and to connect with people, from one point to other online. Similarly, Köbler, Riedl, Vetter, Leimeister and Krcmar (2010) in their explorative study on social connectedness on Facebook noted that users with perceive high level of Facebook connectedness tend to have sense of closeness and friendship with others, and tend to be more involve with social groups while, users with perceive low of Facebook connectedness recurrently experience emotional distant from others, and tend to feel themselves as being outsiders, and that they are not suitable for social situations. Fifthly, Cho (2013) also considered the conversationalist as a perceived characteristic of Facebook that offer users numerous communication mechanisms for discussions between users with a non-online linear or two-way communication situation unlike one-directional way of transmissions or disseminations of information to an audience that is inherent in traditional media channels. Thus, openness, participation, communality, connectedness and conversationalist nature of Facebook may influence a perception of what Facebook can offer to the user.

Similarly, Haque, et al. (2013) in their study of user's perception toward Facebook have examined the significance of accessibility provided by the site, the privacy,

features and sharing social information on the site as factors that may influence perceptions of users toward Facebook. They noted that the sense of privacy which Facebook offer users, where they can store their personal information affect how users perceive Facebook. Thus, in online communication the issue of privacy is an important factor that influences perception of users (Boyd & Heer, 2006; Liu, Gummadi, Mislove, Krishnamurthy, & Mislove, 2011). For example, Boyd and Heer (2006) offer five issues which users perceive about their privacy online they include: “awareness about the composed information; the sensitive nature of the information; the way in which the information will be used; how familiar the user is with the source collecting the information; and what the user is receiving in return for their private information”. They conclude that these issues generally affect the perception of user’s assumption in posting a content on Facebook. Moreover, Dwyer, Hiltz, and Passerini (2007) and O’Brien and Torres (2012) found that, the Facebook user’s perception of trust and confidence on the privacy policies of Facebook made them to disclose personal information on Facebook. Although, some negative consequences also happen during the disclosing information on Facebook. Such as, hacking of the user’s information, or uploading false information on the user’s wall (Boyd & Hargittai, 2010).

The perception of users on Facebook for political online participation lies also in its provision of a variety of features for the user. Ballantine, Lin, and Veer (2015) and Hew (2011) noted that Facebook provide enormous range of features for users, such as, photo sharing, commenting, chatting with Facebook friends, file sharing,

Facebook live news feed in which user highlights information that includes political news, upcoming political events, and birthdays, among other updates. These offerings influence the users' positive perception of Facebook which made Facebook the number one social networking site on the internet (Ballantine et al., 2015; Chou & Edge, 2012; Hew, 2011).

Also, many studies were conducted on the user perceptions of Facebook on politics and online political participation (Bock Seggaard, 2015; Goodman, Bastedo, LeDuc, & Pammett, 2011; Hellweg, 2011; Lampe, Ellison, & Steinfield, 2008; Mellon & Prosser, 2017; O'Brien & Torres, 2012; Thompson & Loughheed, 2012; Wyche, & Baumer, 2016). For example, Bock Seggaard (2015) in his study of how politicians and electorates perceive social media, concludes that users of Facebook particularly politicians and electorates to a certain level recognize Facebook as an apt arena for political communication online at the general level, while at the practical and conventional level voters tend to prefer practical and conventional arenas. Similarly, Lampe et al. (2008) also confirmed in his study that Facebook, in particular, has very far-reaching user participation amongst college students and its use remain quite endless over time. However, they found that user has a different perception about user profiles. In another study on Facebook user perception, O'Brien and Torres (2012) revealed that over half of Facebook users have a high degree of privacy consciousness; however, the majority of Facebook user perceive Facebook as a trustworthy in protecting privacy however, the users also believe that it is both their responsibility and Facebook to protect users' information.

In addition, Wyche and Baumer (2016) in an exploratory study of non-users of Facebook discovered that the large number of respondents were either aware of Facebook or have imagined what Facebook is in spite of the fact that they have never having seen or used the site but they perceive Facebook as an online platform of interest to them regardless of the barriers the prevent them from using it. Perception of the suitability of Facebook for online political participation was also found in Chen and Sali's (2010) examination of the perception of Iranians Facebook users on e-participation, the finding reveals that they perceive Facebook as a medium for the promotion of OPP, and enhancement of engagement among citizen in decision making process. Similarly, they also perceive Facebook as a medium for creating political equality and increasing governmental transparency.

It is therefore important to examine the Facebook perception and online political participation, based on that the study Hypothesize as follows:

H_{3a}: *Facebook Perception significantly relates to Online Political Participation among youth in Nigeria.*

In another vein, researchers have also paid attention to the differences in gender perception between male and female in online political participation. For example, Coffee and Bolzendahl (2010) examining gender difference in political participation of 18 advanced western democracies, found that females are more likely to participate in voting than male, whereas, males were more likely to engage in 'private' activism than female, while men were more likely to have engaged in direct contact, collective types of actions and be more active members of political parties. In addition, many

previous studies on gender difference between male and female political participation were optimistic that the difference will steadily disappear as female catch up with a male in the grounds of education, and, resources (Ikeda, Kobayashi, & Hoshimoto, 2008; Marien, Hooghe, & Quintelier, 2010).

However, recent research findings suggest that the difference is still highly significant (Ondercin & Jones-White, 2011). However, Cicognani, Zani, Fournier, Gavray, and Born (2012) noted that the gender difference in political participation, where women are likely participating less is in the process of closing in western developed countries.

Conversely, the situation is somehow different in developing countries, Some studies (Coffe & Dilli, 2014; Coffe & Bolzendahl, 2011; Isaksson, Kotsadam, & Nerman, 2014) have indicated that gender differences in political participation still exist in developing countries. Therefore, Isaksson et al., (2014) in their study focuses on role of resources, motivations, as determinants of political participation and these determinants were relatively different between male and female. For example, the resources i.e. education and information related to political participation, are differently available to men and women, in addition, the motivational elements inspiring participation, also, differ between the genders, in the developing nation context.

H_{3b}: *There is a significant difference between male and female in Facebook Perception*

2.10 Political Interest and Online Political Participation on Facebook

Political Interest is the willingness of citizens to pay attention to political issues at the probable expense of other issues (Lupia, & Philpot, 2005). Political interest entails individual's motivation in significantly sacrificing time and energy to partake in politics (Holt, Shehata, Strömbäck, & Ljungberg, 2013). This is because it compels individual to get political material that can assist him in measuring the political situation (Tang & Lee, 2013). This showed that political interest is a driving force towards participation in politics (Holt et al., 2013a). This study argued that although the definition of Lupia, and Philpot (2005) is captured the picture of how political interest should be understood, an important point to consider in this definition is that keeping interest may not necessarily be a resultant of devoting time to it at the expense of all other things, because it is possible for a person to be interested in many things at the same time. Therefore, the definition of political interest should be appreciated as explained by Lasorsa (2009) that we should separate what a person likes (i.e. interest) and what person does (i.e. participation).

In the analysis of political interest, some scholars have express concern over the relatively low levels of political interest, especially among youth (Collin, 2008; Denny & Doyle, 2008; Soler-i-Martí, 2015). As a result, Lasorsa (2009) asserts that political interest has both normative and empirical meaning to an individual's participation in politics. Normatively, interest in political is a component that defines a democratic citizen. Thus, a democratic citizen who participates in politics is required to own a certain degree of involvement in the political process and decisions,

and taking an appropriate share of responsibility in critical political situations without disinterest or apathy (Lasorsa, 2009). While, empirically, studies have shown that people become interested in politics because they want to (Verba, Schlozman, & Brady, 1995). These meanings succinctly summarized Verba et al's three reasons of why people participate in politics; because they are able to, and because they have been asked to or because they want to (Verba et al., 1995). Therefore, this shows that an individual's interest in politics is an indicator for that individual wanting to participate in politics, possibly for inherent satisfaction (Lasorsa, 2009). In addition, Prior (2010) observed that there are some people who, for whatever reason, like politics or feel attracted or inquisitive about it and others who do not. That is why some scholars have identified the relevance of political interest in explaining why citizens are (or are not) participating in politics and also the degree to which citizens are interested in politics (Denny & Doyle, 2008; Prior, 2010).

Therefore, it is the political interest that compels citizen's desire to acquire political information. However, Vitak et al. (2011) noted that there is a relationship between political interest and increased consumption of political information, therefore, increased intake of political information leads to interest in politics. On the other hand, Sheppard (2012) contend that political interest is not a measure for political participation but rather it is an important condition that drive individual's cognitive engagement.

However, Carlisle and Patton (2013) found that political interest positively affects political participation. They also found that users of Facebook who are more interested in politics are more likely also to participate in politics on Facebook than users of Facebook who are less interested in politics (Carlisle & Patton, 2013). Additionally, Bae (2014) found that citizens who are more interested in politics will be more willing to pay attention to political content in the media and they will be more likely to participate in politics and vice versa. This is what made Kim (2011) to conclude that political interest is often a strong predictor of political participation, hence it shows whether an individual will be politically active or passive.

Additionally, Conroy, et al., (2012) and Steenkamp and Hyde-Clarke (2014) found that social media have a positive influence in developing peoples political interest and this influence leads to political participation. In the same vein, Tang and Lee (2013) and Cohen and Kahne (2012) found that there is a positive relationship between political interest and the use of social media. They found that youth gets political information through their network of friends online which may lead to political interest and subsequently OPP. The above statement infer that social media users also promote political interest. Therefore, people in their network of online friends may also expected to participate in politics. However, the relationship between political interest and political participation is not always positive. Baumgartner and Morris (2009) in their study of youth and political engagement found that the use of social media does not increase political interest nor political participation.

Therefore, it is pertinent to examine whether the political interest will moderate the relationship between Facebook cognitive usage, Facebook social integrative usage, Facebook personal integrative usage, Facebook affective usage, Facebook escapist usage, Facebook intensity, Facebook perception and online political participation.

Hence this study hypothesizes that:

H_{4a}: *Political interest moderates the relationship between Facebook cognitive usage and online political participation among youth in Nigeria.*

H_{4b}: *Political interest moderates the relationship Facebook social integrative and online political participation among youth in Nigeria.*

H_{4c}: *Political interest moderates the relationship between Facebook personal integrative usage and online political participation among youth in Nigeria.*

H_{4d}: *Political interest moderates the relationship between Facebook affective usage and online political participation among youth in Nigeria.*

H_{4e}: *Political interest moderates the relationship between Facebook escapist usage and online political participation among youth in Nigeria.*

H_{5a}: *Political interest moderates the relationship between Facebook intensity and online political participation among youth in Nigeria.*

H_{6a}: *Political interest moderates the relationship between Facebook perception and online political participation among youth in Nigeria.*

2.11 Gaps in the Literature

From the submissions of above reviewed literature, some conclusions are made, previous studies have submitted mixed results, regarding the exact relationship between FBUs and OPP. Example, (Abdu, Mohamad, & Muda, 2017; Chryssochoou

& Barrett, 2017; Yang & DeHart, 2016; Kupchik & Catlaw, 2015). Therefore, this study reacts to the call for additional investigations on FBUs and OPP, as well as tries to explain further the mixed findings of the previous studies. In addition, examining the possible moderating role of Political Interest (PI) is not only significant for theoretical purposes only, but for research methodology and practical reasons too. For it will allow the researchers to find the conditions under which Facebook usage is likely to have positive, or negative relationships with online political participation. Moreover, investigating political interest as a moderator could enable researchers to understand further and provide them with additional empirical evidence on the role of political interest as a potential moderator in online political participation context.

The literature review also indicated that most of the empirical researches in the area were conducted in the European and Asian nations of which generalization of the result may not be accurate and applicable to African nations due to traditional and contextual differences. Thus, the need for more empirical study that will be undertaken in non-European and non-Asian nations. In addition, even the few studies conducted in Africa, for example in Nigeria, studies such as (Aniekwe & Agbiboa, 2014; Okoro & Nwafor, 2013; Bartlett, Krasodonski-Jones, Daniel, Fisher, & Jespersen, 2015; Olabamije, 2014; Oyenuga, 2015; Tsegay, 2016) have mostly examined social media and election alone. Thus, studies that investigated online political participation as a whole process are rare (Abdulrauf, Abdul Hamid, & Ishak, 2017). Therefore, this study fills the gaps in the literature by examining online political participation in Nigeria.

2.12 Theoretical Framework

The applicability and adaptation of different theories in the study of traditional media have been of great concern to researchers since the beginning of social media. However, these theories that were applied to traditional media continue to be applicable to the online and social media, for the reason that most of the models and theories developed have effectively been applied to online and social media like Facebook. Therefore, for the present study of Facebook use and OPP to be put in proper perspective, the uses and gratification theory (UGT) and civic voluntarism model (CVM) was applied.

2.12.1 Uses and Gratification Theory (UGT)

The study adopted Uses and Gratification Theory (UGT) by Katz, Blumler, and Gurevitch, (1974) as underpinning theory. The perspective of the uses and gratification theory, emerged in the early work of Katz (1959) where he articulated the Uses and Gratifications Theory with two basic assumptions: that media consumers play an active role in media selection of media and messages and that media users visit the media with certain motives. In other word, the theory proposed a contradictory view of the audience as passive group. Rather, the uses and gratification theory postulates that persons making the media audiences are viewed as actively choosing and utilizing contents of the media to satisfy their needs socially and psychologically (Katz et al., 1974).

The UGT proved useful in explaining communication contexts, because it views the media audience as active, and that their media use is specific in the choice of the medium and specific in the choice of the content for the achievement of specific results or gratifications that satisfy their personal needs. The UGT proposes that media consumers are not passive in their choice of media content they actively determine what they want in line with their needs. If there are any effects, these are conscious or at least act intended. The theory also suggests that people deliberately determine the medium that could gratify their needs and that media audiences are conscious in identifying their motives for making media selections (Katz et al., 1974). The UGT has given researchers in communication a new viewpoint in the study of philosophies and theories about media election, consumption, and even its impact (Baran, & Davis, 2012). The core assumptions of the UGT according to Katz et al., (1974) posits that:

- 1) The media consumers are active participants in the communication process.
- 2) Their choice is facilitated by the heterogeneity of media platforms and media contents.
- 3) The influence of certain contexts makes the media consumer determine and decide what they consume and where they consume what
- 4) Media consumers approach media and their contents with certain needs which they seek to gratify, the power of the media to exert its influence on the consumers' use of the media has decreased considerably.
- 5) Media consumers possess the power of assessment and judgment on the media content value.

In the past, researchers focused on what the media did to consumers. The emphasis has now been moved to what the consumers do with the media with the realization that certain psychological and sociological factors originate the need to access certain media contents (Katz, Blumler, & Gurevitch, 1973). This discovery of uses and gratification theory constitutes a major breakthrough of a framework for exploring the relationship between media and audiences. However, the theory has been going is constantly going through development and refinement by communication scholars in their bid to establish a deeper understanding of the interface of human behaviour with the media.

Generally, the theory is being used to explain the consequence of using media based on the consideration of the needs behind media use and the process of gratifying those needs (Katz et al., 1974). According to Katz et al. (1974) different psychological and social conditions determine these need and the process. The uses and gratification theory suggests that media consumers play an active role in selecting and using the media and that they take an active stake in the whole communication process because they are goal oriented in their media use. Therefore, a media consumer seeks out a media source that best fulfils his/her needs with an assumption that other choices are also available for him/her to satisfy the need.

Remarkably, the relevance of this theory has not reduced even with the emergence of the new media technologies because the theory has always provided the ‘ground’ for

the theoretical appraisal of any new medium of mass communication, like the internet (Ruggiero, 2000). Evidently the traces of the today's known and studied media uses and gratifications, evolved from the media effects research of the 40s and 50s (Katz, 1959; Lazarsfeld, 1940; Lazarsfeld, Berelson, Miyamoto, & McFee, 1955). The media effects research was developed to study the socio-psychological needs of media users and the gratifications expected from those needs, as regards both the media and their contents. However, the research was mostly conducted by the manipulation of communication conditions through experimental and quasi-experimental method (Ruggiero, 2000). These studies of media effects approach differ with the UGT approach, while media effects approach looks at media from the angle of the communicator, UGT approach uses the audience as an area of departure. Progressively, in the 60s, UGT researchers started to approach media by reviewing and operationalizing sociological and psychological variables in media use with examples of studies such as (Greenberg, & Dominick, 1969; Katz, & Foulkes, 1962). Furthermore, the wake of 70s and 80s witnessed uses and gratifications study shifted from mere identifying gratifications sought by media users to an association of gratifications sought with gratifications obtained. Based on the assumption that, gratifications sought and gratifications obtained were perceived as two different conceptual units that need to be measured separately (LaRose, Mastro, & Eastin, 2001; Palmgreen, Wenner, & Rayburn, 1980; Palmgreen & Rayburn, 1982; Palmgreen & Rayburn, 1985). While in the 90s scholars dedicated towards the modification of existing uses and gratifications studies through replications,

comparative analyses of separate investigations and extensions towards the integration communication and social phenomenon. For example, empirical comparison of alternative gratifications in studies such as (Massey, 1995; Rubin, 1993).

Interestingly, the propagation the internet and subsequent arrival of the latest media in the wake of 21st century presented a new theoretical challenge for the uses and gratifications research. The internet specifically was posing more of such challenges with its distinct features of interactivity, demassification and synchronicity (Ruggiero, 2000). Consequently, the new (media) technologies provided consumers with a variety of media choices and this has necessitated the need for audience analysis in the area of motivation and satisfaction (Ruggiero, 2000). Therefore, the interactivity, is seen as the degree which lets each participant in a communication process to have the power of controlling and exchanging role in a mutual discourse. This has made the interactive nature of the internet (Facebook) to provide media consumer with more power and control over their media use, which reinforces the core assumption of uses and gratification theory that media consumers have control over their media use.

Similarly, the demassification nature of the internet that makes its communication like an interpersonal face-to-face communication (Mahmoud & Auter, 2009), has even provided the media consumer with more power to exercise control over the media. In addition, the power of control of media consumer over the media in the

communication process is also reinforced by the asynchrony characteristic of the internet (Facebook), because the media consumer is empowered to sway his/her usage over time, and to receive, save or retrieve messages more conveniently (Mahmoud & Auter, 2009). Consequently, the utility of the uses and gratification theory continue to increase with the increase in researches about social media and its application in different segment of life (Azar, Machado, Vacas-De-Carvalho, & Mendes, 2016; Basilisco & Cha, 2015; Jordaan & Van Heerden, 2017). Hence, various researchers have underpinned their theoretical inquiry in studying different perspective of social media platforms under the UGT. Table 2.3. Provides examples of social media studies conducted with the uses and gratification theory.

Table 2.3
Social Media Studies that Adopted Uses and Gratification Theory (UGT)

Author	Year	Study
Chou & Hsiao	2000	Internet addiction, usage, gratification, and pleasure experience: The Taiwan college students' case
Dimmick, Chen and Li	2004	Competition between the Internet and Traditional News Media: The Gratification-Opportunities Niche Dimension
Sheldon	2008	Student favourite: Facebook and motives for its use
Urista, Dong and Day	2009	Explaining Why Young Adults Use Myspace and Facebook Through Uses and Gratifications Theory.
Quan-Haase and Young	2010	Uses and Gratifications of Social Media: A Comparison of Facebook and Instant Messaging
Smock, Ellison, Lampe and Wohn	2011	Facebook as a toolkit: A uses and gratification approach to unbundling feature use.
Smock et al.	2011	Who uses Facebook? An investigation into the relationship between the Big Five, shyness, narcissism, loneliness, and Facebook usage
Cheung, Chiu and Lee	2011	Online social networks: Why do students use Facebook?
Cheung, Chiu and Lee	2012	Mobile content contribution and retrieval: An exploratory study using the uses and gratifications paradigm.

Richard, Froget, Baghestan, and Asfaranjan	2013	A uses and gratification perspective on social media usage and online Marketing
Tanta, Mihovilović and Sablić	2014	Uses and gratification theory – Why adolescents use Facebook ?
Krause, North and Heritage	2014	The uses and gratifications of using Facebook music listening applications.
Malik, Dhir and Nieminen	2015	Uses and gratifications of digital photo sharing on Facebook.
Ha, Kim, Libaque-Saenz, Chang and Park	2015	Use and gratifications of mobile SNSs: Facebook and KakaoTalkin Korea.
Choi, Fowler, Goh and Yuan	2016	Social media marketing: Applying the Uses and gratifications theory in the hotel industry.
Phua, Jinn and Kim	2017	Uses and gratifications of social networking sites for bridging and bonding social capital: A comparison of Facebook, Twitter, Instagram, and Snap chat

In the aspect of methodological approaches of the UGT scholars have advanced the basic precept of the uses and gratification theory into several methodological approaches. One of the approaches is media vs. content approach where researchers are concerned with studying the benefits people pursue from the media such as media content, features, and also the gratification goal like information/surveillance, escape/entertainment or social interaction. Several studies have used this approach (Blumler & McQuail, 1968; Elihu Katz & Foulkes, 1962; Krause, North, & Heritage, 2014; LaRose & Eastin, 2004; Mischel & Ebbesen, 1970; van der Voort et al., 1998). The present study rests more on this methodological approach of the UGT.

Another methodological approach to the discussion of the uses and gratification theory is Gratifications Sought (GS) vs. Gratifications Obtained (GO). This approach to the study of uses and gratification theory is based on the assumption that there is a notion of absolute difference between gratifications sought and the gratifications obtained which entails that both of them should be given different independent

measurement. Therefore, gratification sought is what the consumer expects to get from the media prior to consuming the media. While gratification obtained is the satisfaction and the fulfilment that the consumer got after consuming the media, which are not mutually inclusive. Many studies were conducted using this approach (Katz, et al., 1974; Palmgreen, Wenner, & Rayburn, 1980).

The use of factors affecting individuals use or content selection, is another approach under the premise of the UGT, this approach is concerned with the examination of the media uses through identifying of factors that affect media usage. This approach was inspired by some long-standing studies which found that people of lesser economic status are not using the media, notable among the studies is (Schramm, 1949) which found that media use, particularly newspaper readership had a positive association with demographic variable of gender, education, age and economic status these are regarded as traditional factors. Subsequent studies, such as (Chaffe, & Choe, 1981) added other factors which they termed as transitional which can arise as a result of changes in individual life circle like marital status, while self-imposed factors can arise as a result mental disposition of individuals in the media such as lack of interest. Similarly, Cobb (1986) added environmental factors in the list of the variable of this approach of influencing media such as language and race. This study is also adopting this methodological approach of UGT by seeking to determine the difference between male and female gender in Facebook usage and online political participation that traditional factors like gender

Although various typologies of uses and gratification theory have been developed, for example, (Katz et al., 1973; Leung, 2001). This study adopted the traditional typology of (Katz, et al., 1974). They grouped media gratifications into five broad categories and identified the micro gratifications in each category. These categories include:

- Cognitive needs, comprising (gaining information, and understanding of the environment)
- Affective needs, comprising (feeling, pleasure, moods)
- Personal integrative needs, comprising (integrity, stability, personal status)
- Social integrative needs, comprising (relating with family, friends and the world)
- Escapist need, comprising (Tension release and diversion).

From, the foregoing, it has been established that UGT is relevant in serving as a theoretical frame work for studying social media (Facebook) because of its derivation in the communication studies and also as a communication tool that allows users to connect with a multitude number of individuals thousands all over the world (Gallion, 2008). The basic principle of UGT is that media consumers always seek out a particular medium among the available media that satisfy their needs, thereby giving them ultimate gratification (Palmgreen & Rayburn, 1985). The advantage of uses and gratifications is that a perspective of media audience proved important in communication study because studies have shown that the satisfactions in the form of gratifications that the media consumer received are good interpreters of media use

and repetitive media use (Johnson & Kaye, 2014). That is why the uses and gratification theory has been used extensively within the study of politics and the broadcasting of political messages (Baran & Davis, 2012).

Similarly, UGT can also be significant in explaining Facebook use and why people use Facebook through the uses and gratifications approach (Raacke & Bonds-Raacke, 2008). For example, a research conducted on the college student's gratification in the use of Facebook groups and its relation to their civic participation offline, found that there were four needs that a student sought to gratify for using Facebook groups, they are: socializing, entertaining, self-status seeking and gaining information (Park et al., 2009). Although, the UGT has been extensively used for studying traditional media it is also useful for studies on social media use, even more appropriate than for studying traditional media because social media users are more active participants, compared to mainstream media users (Ruggiero, 2000).

Furthermore, Johnson and Kaye (2014) in their application of UGT, conducted a study on Internet as a means of sourcing political information and established that individuals use the internet mainly to gratify their need of surveillance and voter direction and secondarily for social usefulness and entertainment. Pavlik and Everette (1996) also noted that social media gives people the power to act, communicate, or participate in the political process and in broader societal issues, this type of social media use may influence increase in self-esteem, self-efficacy, and political awareness (Mehdizadeh, 2010). Facebook can provide a comparatively safe

place for exchanging information, giving support, and serving as an assembly devoid of any fear of harassment (Tossberg, 2000). It affords a reachable environment where individuals can form a network of individuals who share similar political viewpoints, interests and goals. As part of a group, they are able to voice opinions and concerns in a supportive environment (Flad, 2010).

Therefore, from a theoretical perspective, this study derives its underpinning supports by applying the UGT to the Facebook. Researchers have identified the process of media use and effect as a complex process which entails careful consideration in identifying antecedent, mediation, and outcome situations (Rubin, 1993). In recognition of this statement, the present study investigated the social media effects process by examining the causal relationship among motivation for usage of the Facebook i.e. antecedent variables, political interest i.e. moderating variables, and online political participation i.e. outcome variables.

In summary, it had been established from the above discussion that the uses and gratification theory is a strong and solid theory through which Facebook use as well as relationship between Facebook use and online political participation among youth can be determined. The postulation of the UGT clearly guides the development of this study's hypotheses by examining the relationship between Facebook use and OPP. This offers a well-defined theoretical framework of understanding during which variables like, Facebook Usage, Facebook Intensity Facebook Perception and Political Interest can be measured.

2.12.2 Civic Voluntarism Model (CVM)

The Civic Voluntarism Model is one of the most widely discussed and applied model in the researches on political participation (Meth et al., 2015). It was also known as resource model and it has its origin from the influential research work of two political scientists Sidney Verba and Norman Vie (1972) on political participation in America. Subsequently, the author in 1995 and other researchers applied the research as a civic voluntarism model in studying political participation in different countries.

The model is fundamentally a structural analysis of participation, which explains that people tend to participate and get involved when they have the resources to participate; when they were mobilized to participate; and when they were motivated to participate. The core idea of CVM is that resources; information, education, time, and money facilitate individual's involvement and give them better ability to participate in politics than individuals without these resources. Similarly, individuals that possess these resources are easily mobilized by others to participate through the various resources which creates motivation and interest to participate.

The proponents of the civic voluntarism model outlined that three factors account for the understanding of political activities. They suggested that instead of the usual question that seeks a theoretical explanation of why do people become political participants i.e. activists. They proposed a reversal of the question to why do people do not become political participant i.e. activist. (Verba, Schlozman, & Brady, 1995).

In essence, Verba, et al, (1995) provided three answers for the reversal question which became the propositions of the Model. They are:

- a) People do not become political participants because they cannot participate in politics.
- b) People do not become political participants because they do not want to participate in politics.
- c) People do not become political participants because nobody asked them to participate in politics.

Furthermore, Verba, et al. (1995) noted that people tend to be inactive in participation in politics because they lack the resources to facilitate their participation, or because they lack psychological involvement with politics. In addition, people also tend to be inactive in participation in politics because they are outside the recruitment network that mobilizes and bring people into political participation (Verba, Schlozman, & Brady, 1995).

The Central idea of CVM of political participation is illustrated in the Figure 2.1.

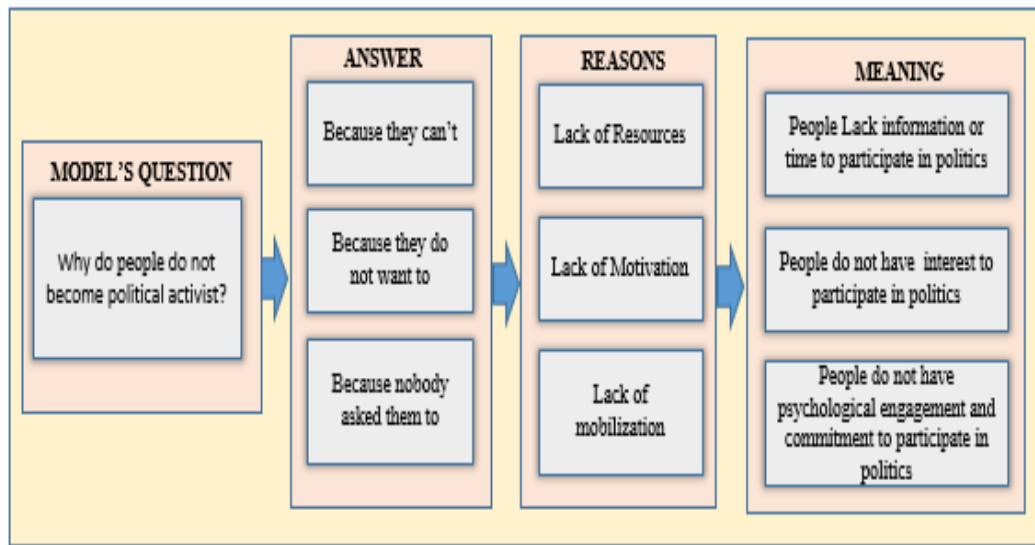


Figure 2.1 Process of CVM Model of Political Participation

The fundamental argument of CVM is that individual's participation is determined by the capacity of individual to face the cost of participation, therefore resources are the determinant of participation, thus, people with little resources like time, information, money, may choose not to participate because the cost of participation are too high (Meth et al., 2015). Therefore, depending on the resource available to people they can participate or not participate.

Although, the CVM is developed to explain political participation at the time when internet and social media were not commonly used as they are now used. However, the social media conveniently fit to influence the level and type of political participation in online and even offline nature. Meth et al. (2015) noted that the internet is a new resource that transforms the CVM factor of cost in political participation. In the same vein, having a good information acquisition and online skill enables both mobilization and political participation in a more efficient way

(Anduiza, Cantijoch, & Gallego, 2009). In addition, the use of social media can rise the availability of other CVM factors, for example, using social media supposes saving of money and often of time, which will therefore increase the fundamental CVM factor of resource for political participation.

Table 2.4
Social Media Studies that Adopted CVM

Author	Year	Study
Whiteley, Clarke, Sanders, & Stewart,	2001	Turnout
Picker	2003	Practicing Citizenship: The Community Voluntarism Model
Norris	2005	The impact of the Internet on political activism: Evidence from Europe.
Kim and Khan	2014	Revisiting civic voluntarism predictors of college students' political participation in the context of social media
Kern, Marien and Hooghe	2015	Economic Crisis and Levels of Political Participation in Europe (2002–2010): The Role of Resources and Grievances.
Dahan and Monogan	2016	The consequences of religious strictness for political participation
Suksawas and Mayer	2016	Can gender and social class generate political participation in Northern Thailand?
Rainsford	2017	Exploring youth political activism in the United Kingdom: What makes young people politically active in different organisations
Oni, Oni, Mbarika, and Ayo	2017	Empirical study of user acceptance of online political participation: Integrating Civic Voluntarism Model and Theory of Reasoned Action

Furthermore, several studies have used CVM in studying political participation on social media (Anduiza et al., 2009; Gustafsson, 2012; Kim & Khang, 2014; Meth et al., 2015; Östman, 2012). For example, Anduiza et al., (2009) identified the significance of the internet as a fresh space for political mobilization with extremely low cost compared to face to face mode of political mobilization. In addition a user that access an online post on Facebook can become a mobilizing agent by writing comments and sharing the post without the need for more resources (Anduiza et al., 2009). Similarly, Kim and Khang (2014) in their application of CVM on college students political participation, found that students with more CVM predictors tend to participate more in politics online. Moreover, Gustafsson (2012) also applied CVM in his examination of Facebook and political participation found that Facebook lower the threshold of resources and recruitment (mobilization) cost of participation by introducing new and more flexible forms in which political participation can take place.

Based on the above discussion, CVM factors have foster and maintain that the success of the individual's participation in social issues such as political participations is central to availability of resources, engagement, and recruitment which can positively influence citizens' political participation. This study redefined these factors to fit into the context of Facebook use and OPP. First, where the availability of resources; time spent on Facebook, the cognitive need for information on Facebook will facilitate online political participation. Second, among the various dimensions of motivation, emotional connection to Facebook will facilitate and relate to online political

participation. Third, the study considers that the Social integrative need on Facebook, the network of friends on Facebook, will facilitate and relate to user online political participation as the mobilization factor mobilization factor of CVM posited. Similarly, political interest is a key motivating element for Facebook user's political participation (Meth et al., 2015). It is, therefore, considered that political interest is the most comprehensive force of the mobilization that could moderate user relationship to online political participation. Similarly, Meth et al. (2015) noted that the internet also promote CVM motivation factor of interest in politics for the people that use social media to access political and social content, and it will also in turn strengthen the non-participation of people who are not interested in politics.

In summary, as CVM is applied to this study, a Facebook user's cognitive need of information and escapist need (resources) personal integrative need, affective need and social integrative need (mobilization) who has an interest in politics (motivation) will be more likely to participate in the online political discussion, or share political news and postings with their friend, than those who have not much interest in political issues. Similarly, if a user has network friends on Facebook (mobilization), the amount of time a user spent on Facebook (resources) and has an emotional connection to Facebook (motivation), the user will be more likely to participate in the online political discussion, or share political news and postings with their friend, i.e. online political participation, than those who have not much interest in political issues and have less friends on Facebook and less emotional connection to Facebook.

2.13 Proposed Conceptual Framework

This framework is developed based on the literature review as well as critical studies that established the statistical relationship between Facebook Usage (i.e. cognitive usage, social integrative usage, personal integrative usage, affective usage, and escapist usage), Facebook intensity, Facebook perception and Online political participation, with Political Interest variable as a moderator in the relationship between the IVs and the DV. While the Gender difference in Facebook usage, Facebook intensity, Facebook perception, and online political participation will also be examined. Thus the frame is shown in figure 2.2

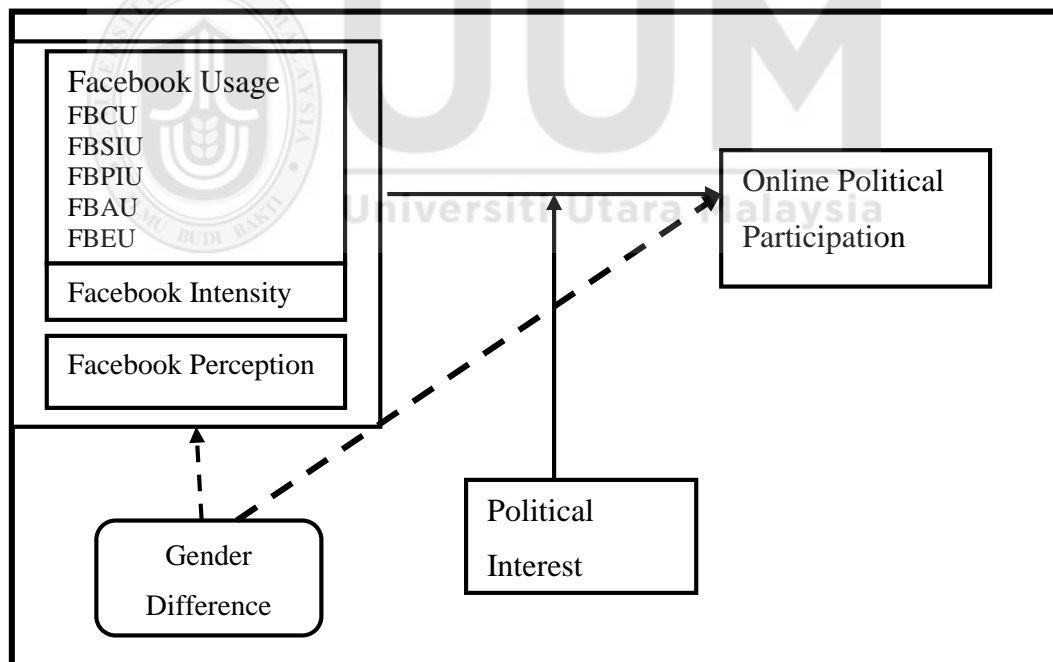


Figure 2.2 A conceptual frame showing the concepts of proposed independent, dependent and moderating variables in the

2.14 Summary of the Chapter

This chapter presented the reviews of the relevant variables and justifications towards the hypothesis development. It also discusses the conceptualization of all the variables that were employed in the proposed framework presented and discussed the theoretical underpinnings so as to justify the basis of the study. The next chapter contains a detailed explanation of the methodology to be employed by this study in conducting an empirical research using the above variables and the conceptualized hypotheses from the literature, and illustrated in the proposed study framework



CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter continues from the preceding chapter by discussing the research approach that was adopted for the study, the research method and the process of data collection and analysis. Each of these elements of the research design is identified and an explanation of its importance in the research process is adequately provided. The chapter starts by discussing the relevance of quantitative research approach to the present study. Thereafter, it explains the research method of survey and the sampling selection adopted for this study. Then it continues with explaining about the data collection instrument of study, sources of adaptation of the instrument, experts' validation of the instrument's items, as well as a pilot test study to check the reliability of the instruments and purification of the measurement items through exploratory factor analysis (EFA), the chapter will conclude by detailing the process and the procedure for data analysis for the study as it unfolds

3.2 Research Design

Research design is a specific step in conducting any research work in line with the specific objectives of the study. Creswell and Creswell (2018) stated that research design is a process for collecting, analysing and reporting research in quantitative and qualitative research. The study adopts a quantitative research approach in line with the study objectives. The quantitative approach offers the advantage of generalization (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). It also provides the researcher the opportunity to

measure a social phenomenon from a detached position with minimal bias. The approach was also selected because it enables the researcher to collect quantitative data on a topic from the representatives of the population so that inferences about attitude, relationship, characteristics or behaviour of the population can be made (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). The cross-sectional survey was adopted for gathering data for the study because the data was collected at a specific point in time. Similarly, the approach enables the research to test theories deductively, based on assumptions, control for other explanations, and to be able to generalize and replicate the findings in another study (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). Quantitative data are mostly obtained by using a questionnaire (Kumar, 2019). The research process frequently involves the development of questions known as scales that are used to measure factors such as feelings, satisfaction, attitude and other essential factors of research with a numerical value (Sekaran & Bougie, 2016).

3.3 Population of the Study

The undergraduate youth in KASU constituted the population of this study. Keyton (2015) notes that a researcher must make careful choices about respondents that he will collect the data from, as well as to be able to defend his choice. Equally, Creswell (2014) notes that in quantitative study, the researcher should select respondents who are available in a well-defined, intact groups of people that are easily studied. Researchers have provided justifications for using undergraduates as population for this kind of research because they constitute a key part of youth in any society (Embi, Gabarre, Gabarre, Hamat, & Din, 2014; Hamat, Embi, & Hassan, 2012). Therefore,

the use of undergraduate students is because they have been found to be theoretically relevant as respondents in the study of different social media platforms, like Facebook (Ekström & Östman, 2013; Gordon, 2008; Velasquez & LaRose, 2015). Other researchers have not only also used undergraduate as respondents in their studies, but, they also used a sample of respondents similar to this study, for example, 407 respondents (Kushin & Yamamoto, 2010), 445 respondents (Al-Kandari & Hasanen 2012), 405 respondents (Hamid, Ishak, Ismail, & Yazam, 2013), 653 respondents (Krings, Austic, Gutierrez, & Dirksen, 2015). Similarly, undergraduate youth were identified as early adopters and heavy users of social media (Kushin & Yamamoto, 2010). Added to it, they are among the group of people that use Facebook most in the society (Dagona, Karick, & Abubakar, 2013). Additionally, Day, Montgomery, and Malaviya (2001) have found that undergraduate respondents are more receptive to study guides and are often more available and approachable. They argued that undergraduate are competent in completing surveys-like instruments and they can easily comprehend, question content or instructions (Day et al., 2001).

More so, a number of associated studies (Ellison, et al., 2007; Kushin & Yamamoto, 2010; Pempek, et al., 2009; Quan-Haase & Young, 2010; Raacke & Bonds-Raacke, 2008; Valenzuela, Park, & Kee, 2009; Vitak et al., 2011) have used undergraduate as population and have highlighted their suitability as population for research of this kind. The total population of undergraduates in KASU is 7,023 (Directorate of academic planning, KASU, 2017). However, in consideration to the large number of undergraduate population in KASU it will be practically impossible to conduct the

research with the whole population. Kumar, (2019) argued that a carefully selected representative sample of a study population can provide a high degree of true of the population being studied. Hence the need for a representative sample of the population in this study.

3.4 Sample Size

Sample size is the selection of respondents to represent the total population. It is an important step in any study and choosing it entails statistical consideration of the level of precision which entails the range in which the sample may be the true value of the estimated population. In addition, this study was guided by the factors outline by Sekaran and Bougie (2016) in drawing sample size, which include; the objective of the study, the acceptable risk in predicting the level of precision (confidence interval), the extent of precision desired (confidence level), the amount of variability in the population itself (variation according to heterogeneous or homogeneous nature of the population) and the cost and time constraints.

Therefore, to get the sample size for this study from the sample frame discussed above, Krejcie and Morgan's (1970) table for selecting sample size was adopted to guide the choice of sample size from the population. The authors provided a table that shows the ratio of desirable sample size for a given population. Table 3.1 shows that a sample of 278 is required for a population of 1000 and for a population of 10,000 a sample size of 370 is required while for one million population and above, a sample size of 384 will suffice.

Table 3.1

Krejcie and Morgan Table for Sampling Size

No of Population	Sampling Size
1000	278
1500	306
2000	322
5000	357
7000	364
10000	370
20000	377
30000	379
40000	380
50000	381
75000	382

Source: Krejcie and Morgan (1970)

Additionally, for the sake of meeting the predicting the level of precision (confidence interval), and the extent of precision desired (confidence level) the researcher adopted the Taro Yamanie's (1967) formula to compute the sample size. According to Israel (1992), Yamanie's formula is a simplified mathematical formula of calculating sample size. The formula is

$$n = \frac{N}{1 + n(e)^2}$$

where n = represents the sample size that desired, N – stand for population and e is the level of precision, while 1 is a constant unit. For the data analysis, this study set 5 as the confidence interval and 95% as the confidence level. Therefore, by applying this formula on the population of undergraduate in KASU, 378 was the sample size of the study as shown in this formula

$$n = \frac{7023}{1 + 7023(0.05)^2} = \frac{7023}{185575} n = 378$$

This formula also gives a desirable sample size of 378 respondents. Furthermore, the study also used structural equation modelling (SEM) which is considered relevant for this study that has multiple constructs. SEM is appropriate when a study involves multivariate analysis that can be used in multiple regression, factor analysis, and path analysis (Hair et al. 2014). SEM is also relevant when there is need to establish the relationship between a number of constructs that have been theorized to have a relationship (Hair, et al. 2014). Hair, et al. (2014) suggests that the characteristics of the study population and the number of constructs involved in the study should be considered in selecting the required sample population for SEM analysis. Therefore, a model with five or less latent construct will require a sample size of 100. Also, a research model with each construct having more than three items; a sample size of 150 will be required, while 300 sample size will be enough for model with seven items or less constructs. Consequently, the proposed model of this study has five construct, hence, a sample size of 300 to 400 will be sufficient for the SEM analysis for this study.

Further, Davis (2000) suggested that in determining sample size for an empirical research a number of factors, comprising homogeneity of sampling unit, confidence, precision, analytical procedure, statistical power, time, cost and personnel should be considered. Consequently, the three sample size calculation method was used in determining sample size of this study. The Krejcie and Morgan (1970) table which shows that from a sampling frame of a unit with a population of 7,023 respondents, the minimum sample size that can be taken is 364 respondents, and by considering Yamanie's simplified mathematical formula of calculating sample size, for a

population of 7,023, a sample size of 378 is taken. Also by applying Hair, et al. (2014) suggestion that for a proposed model of study that has five construct, then, a sample size of 300 to 400 respondents will be adequate for the SEM analysis study. Therefore, by taking all these three technique into consideration, a sample size of 400 respondents is taken as the sample size for this study. However, scholars Keyton (2015) and Salkind (1997) recommend for over sampling when conducting research, because response rate might increase when sample size increase.

In addition, Flink (2017) identified two steps for a researcher who want to oversample; first, the minimum sample size must be determined. Second, by using the minimum sample size, a researcher would then decide on the number needed for oversampling. But, Salkind (1997) recommend for oversampling of 40-50% of the sample size to reimburse the likely lost questionnaires, low response rate and uncooperative respondents. Keyton (2015) also emphasized that using a larger sample to always enhance the result in a SEM analysis. While most results of a larger sample size surveys are more likely to be positively significant when compared to the result of smaller sample surveys (Newman, 2014). Therefore, consistent with Keyton (2015) and Salkind (1997) recommendation, this study considered the increase rate of 50% i.e. 200 to the sample size. Therefore, the sample size of 400 was increased with 200. Consequently, 600 became the sample size of this study. Similarly, proportionate stratified random sampling procedure was adopted to select the sampled respondents.

3.5 Overview of Research Place

Nigeria is the leading populous country in Africa and the 7th most populous nation in the world (Worldometers, 2018; World Population Review, 2019). It has an estimated population of about 200 million (Central Intelligence Agency, 2018; World Population Review, 2019; UNFPA, 2018). Nigeria alone constitute 2.6 percent of the world's population and one person in every five Africans is a Nigerian. It is also the biggest oil exporter in Africa and the 6th in the world, with the largest natural gas reserves in the continent (The World Bank, 2014). It is bordered by the Gulf of Guinea in the South, Cameroon in the East, Benin Republic in the West and Chad and Niger in the North. The capital city is Abuja, it has 36 states, 774 local governments and six geopolitical zones (North-East, North-West, North-Central, South-South, South-West and South-West) and youth constitute seventy percent of the Nigerian population (BBC, 2018a; UNFPA, 2018).

Nigeria is home to many ethnic groups the most popular are: Fulani, Hausa, Igbo and Yoruba and there are over 250 ethnic groups. The official language of the country is English Language, and there are three major languages that are politically influential in the country are: Hausa, Yoruba and Igbo with over 500 additional indigenous languages, the people of the country practiced three religions; Islam, Christianity and indigenous beliefs (Central Intelligence Agency, 2018). The country gained its independence from Britain in 1960 and since then series of military coups and counter-coups have truncated the democratic governance that people were yearning for since independence. However, Nigeria is currently experiencing democratic

governance after 16 years of military rule that came to an end in April 1999 (Central Intelligence Agency, 2018).

Nigeria is also considered as one of the homes of the internet use in the African continent. The statistics on internet access and usage, particularly among youth is growing rapidly. The 82,094,998 Internet users since Dec 30, 2015 or 45.1% of the population had risen to 98,391,456 internet users or 50.2% of the population as of June 31, 2018 (Internet-World Stats, 2018; Internet Live Stats, 2018). While, there were 15,000,000 Facebook users in June 2015 and it has risen to 17,000,000 users as of June 2018 (Internet-World Stats, 2018; Internet Live Stats, 2018). This makes Nigeria the 3rd Africa's biggest user of the social media platforms (Internet-World Stats, 2018).

3.5.1 Research Setting

The research settings for this study is a public university; Kaduna State University (KASU) Nigeria. KASU is situated in the federal republic of Nigeria. It is a multi-racial democratic country that is struggling to consolidate democratic governance and its citizens participate in politics is (Khoo & Loh, 2014; Sampson, 2015). Furthermore, there is evidence of high rates of Facebook use among youth in the country (Aduloju, 2016; Ekwugha, 2014). Consequently, it is expected, then, that there will be a high possibility of political participation of youth on Facebook (Apuke & Apollos, 2017).

KASU was established in May 2004, with the mission of providing an all-round tertiary education of the utmost standard for the progress of the individual and the nation, at the same time inculcating the spirit of tolerance, understanding, love and unity in the state in particular and the nation in general. And also, with the vision to become a university of world stance with distinction in applied sciences and sustainability studies. KASU is located in Kaduna state, one of the major states in the country, the third most populous state and the former capital headquarters of the defunct northern regional government. It is a government funded university with two campuses in Kaduna and Kafanchan. In terms of academic, the university has: Faculties of Faculty of Arts, Faculty of Science, Faculty of Social & Management Science, Faculty of Medicine & Pharmaceutical Science and Faculty of Agriculture & Environmental Science. The faculties comprise of 51 academic departments, offering 32 undergraduate courses and 54 postgraduate courses leading to the award of degree, master's degree, post graduate diplomas (PGD) and diploma certificates respectively (Directorate of academic planning, KASU, 2017). The university is ranked 12,252 in the ranking of universities in the world (Webometrics, 2018).

The choice of KASU is because it is a public university which admit undergraduate youth from the six geographical zones of Nigeria in line with the admission policy in the country. Therefore, undergraduate in these types of public universities represent all demographic and socioeconomic backgrounds of Nigerians. Furthermore, universities in Nigeria are the training ground for politicians and political activities in Nigeria. In addition, Nigerian law has allowed students of tertiary institution to

participate actively in politics (INEC, 2018). Hence, the reason for choosing undergraduates of KASU as respondents of this research.

3.6 Sampling Procedure

Sampling is regarded absolutely fundamental to quantitative research in an effort to ensure that the research overcome external validity Creswell & Creswell, (2018). Thus, the study adopts the proportionate stratified sampling. The techniques are a probability sampling technique with an element of randomization (Creswell, 2018). The technique is considered appropriate because the target population for this research is composed of different parameters of gender, age, as well as a segment in subgroups in terms of different faculties and department of study. The technique allows for stratification of the study's population, which will assist the researcher in obtaining more information with a given sample and it will also aid in ensuring that the peculiarities of each subgroup of the population is taken care up (Sekaran & Bougie, 2016). Therefore, Wimmer, and Dominick (2014) recommend that for a study that deals with populations that are segmented into different groups such as that of a university, stratified random sampling will be appropriate. It also enables a researcher to categorize the members of a given population into groups that are collectively exhaustive and mutually exclusive (Wimmer & Dominick, 2014).

The characteristics of the population of this study are homogenous in nature. They are all undergraduates at tertiary institutions, in their youthful age, comprising of both male and female and pursuing different courses of study at degree level. The

population has attained a level of education that will enable them to get involved and interested in discussing politics and participating in politics online (Kushin & Yamamoto, 2010) Similarly, they are among the group of people that use social media most in the society, especially Facebook (Abusbiha & Mustaffa, 2014; Asogwa, Ojih, & Onoja, 2015; Afendi Hamat, Embi, & Hassan, 2012; Longo & Meyer, 2006; Ogedebe et al., 2012).

Based on that, this study, therefore, adopted proportionate stratified sampling. It is a probability technique of sampling in which the researcher distributes the entire population into different subgroups known as stratum, and then randomly selects the final sample of respondents proportionally from the different subgroups or stratum (Creswell, 2018). The method is advantageous because it will guarantee all individuals in the population an equal chance of being selected. Therefore, the total undergraduate population of this study was divided according to the faculties of the university. The faculties are: Arts, Science, Social & Management Science, Medicine, & Pharmaceutical Science, Agriculture & Environmental Science, as shown in table 3.2.

Table 3.2
Population of Undergraduates of KASU

KASU	Population
Faculty of Arts	1561
Faculty of Science	1713
Faculty of Social & Management Science	1486
Faculty of Medicine & Pharmaceutical Science	1102
Faculty of Agriculture & Environmental Science	1161
Grand total	7023

Source: (Directorate of Academic Planning, KASU, 2017)

Therefore, sample of respondents was drawn from each faculty in KASU they are: Faculty of Arts, Faculty of Science, Faculty of Social & Management Science, Faculty of Medicine & Pharmaceutical Science, and Faculty of Agriculture & Environmental Science. It is from the total population of each faculty that a proportionate stratified random sampling was drawn.

Furthermore, the percentage of the population of each faculty in proportion to the total population of the study was determined and consequently, sampled respondents were drawn from the percentage of each faculty in proportion to the sample size of the study as shown below.

Table 3.3
Population of Undergraduates of the Faculties in KASU

Faculty/College	Population	Percentage
Faculty of Arts	1561	22%
Faculty of Science	1713	24%
Faculty of Social & Management Science	1486	21%
Faculty of Medicine & Pharmaceutical Science	1102	16%
Faculty of Agriculture & of Environmental Science	1161	17%
Total	7,023	100%

Source; (Directorate of Academic Planning, KASU, 2017)

Therefore, by applying the proportionate stratified random sampling, the sampled respondents were drawn by computing the percentage of each faculty in proportion to the sample size of the study. As a result, 132 (22%) undergraduate respondents were selected for Faculty of Arts, 144 (24%) respondents from the faculty of Science, 126 (21%) respondents from the faculty of social & Management science, 90 (15%)

respondents from the faculty of Medicine & Pharmaceutical Science, while 102 (17%) respondents were selected from the faculty of Agriculture & Environmental Science.

Table 3.4
Proportionate Stratified Random Sampling Method of Sampled Respondents

KASU	Population	Sample Size	Percentage	Sample Respondents
Faculty of Arts	1561	600	22%	132
Faculty of Sciences	1713	600	24%	144
Faculty of Social & Management Science	1486	600	21%	126
Faculty of Medicine & Pharmaceutical Science	1102	600	15%	90
Faculty of Agriculture & Environmental Science	1161	600	17%	102
Total	7,023	-	100%	600

As each faculty in the university was identified, a systematic procedure of in administering questionnaire to each respondent from each faculty was used. From each of the faculty research assistants were instructed to administer the questionnaire to the respondents from the list of students in each faculty in which a generated random table was given to each student in the list. Therefore, using the random table list they distributed the questionnaires to the first student in the list with a random start of 4th, then 7th, then 11th, until they distribute to the number of sampled respondent required in each faculty. The research assistants were drawn from National youth service corps (NYSC) members that are serving in the university and also the student union government (SUG) members. The research assistants undertake the distribution of the questionnaire through the coordination of the researcher and they also monitored the collection of the returned questionnaire, this has eventually yielded a high return rate of the questionnaires.

3.7 Research Instrument

The instrument for collecting data for this study was self-administered questionnaire. The justification for the choice of questionnaire is that, by using it, the researcher can be able to gather a huge amount of information can from many people in a short period of time. Ruel, Wagner and Joseph (2016) and Bhattacharjee (2012) identified the advantages of questionnaire that it can be administered to many respondents within a short time, it also gives the respondents' sufficient time to answer the questions and it also gives the respondent a sense of confidentiality.

Similarly, Wimmer and Dominick (2014) outline the advantages of questionnaire in three conditions; first, when there is confidence of getting huge response; second, when the respondents are literate; third, when the nature of the questions are well developed and self-explanatory that will not require face-to-face contact with the respondent. Incidentally, this study fulfils the three conditions, thus drawing from the justification in using the instrument. The questionnaire was distributed to the respondents by the researcher and the research assistants to reduce non-return and low response rate.

This study's instrument was adapted from the instrument developed for different studies in different contexts, the adaptation of the instrument was achieved after an extensive review of literature on Facebook use and political participation. Even though the adapted instrument was mostly used in different study context, they were also found to be suitable for adaptation in this study, however, the adapted instrument were

subjected to statistical process in a bid to standardize them for the present study instrument. Thus, content validity test and reliability test for each of the items was conducted to establish the validity and reliability of the adapted measurement for use in this study. Therefore, the pilot result of the reliability test has reached the target level of minimum Cronbach alpha reliability range of 0.70 to 0.80. In addition, the content validity assessment and factor analysis that was also conducted on the adapted items (as explained further in the pilot result section) suggest the suitability of the items for the study.

Consequently, the instruments were adapted to measure the independent variables, dependent variable and moderating variable of this study. The items adapted for the construct of Facebook Usage are from the study by Katz, Haas, and Gurevitch (1973) and Papacharissi and Rubin (2000) with reported Cronbach's Alpha of 0.85, ($\alpha=0.85$), the items of the study were found adaptable in meaning to the construct of Facebook usage, more importantly, because the five dimensions in the construct of Facebook usage in this study (cognitive usage, affective usage, personal integrative usage, social integrative usage and escapist usage) are similar with the five dimensions of needs in the above studies. Although some words were substituted to suit the present study, for example, the word "Internet" in "I use the internet to keep up with current issues and event" was changed to "Facebook" "I use Facebook to keep up with current issues and event". The change was justified as evidenced in previous researches where the word "Television" in (Conway & Rubin, 1991) was substituted with "internet" in Papacharissi & Rubin 2000).

Facebook intensity is a construct with two dimensions; emotional connection and Facebook friends. The measurement items for emotional connection is adapted from the instrument a study by Kaseraporn (2011) with reported Cronbach's Alpha of 0.92, ($\alpha=0.92$), although the instrument was developed and tested in the Asian context, it was considered adapted to the Nigerian setting on the account of its relevance to this study and for the fact that it used students as respondents and this study also used students as respondents, who might share some characteristics with respondents in the original study. Although, some of the items were modified to suit the platform of Facebook. For example, "I always find myself staying on Internet than intended", was changed to "I always find myself stay on Facebook than intended". Similarly, the measurement items for Facebook friends were adapted from instrument developed for studying motive and use of Facebook by Joinson (2008), the study reported Cronbach's alpha of 0.9, ($\alpha=0.9$) value, the items in the construct were found relevant to measure the dimension of Facebook friend in the Facebook Intensity construct. However, some words of the items were substituted for the purpose of this study. Furthermore, the items adapted for the construct of Facebook perception are from a study by Haque Sarwar and Yasmin (2013), with a reported Cronbach alpha of .89, ($\alpha=0.89$) value. The items in the construct were found adaptable to measure Facebook perception in the Nigerian context.

Similarly, the construct of online political participation was measured with items adapted from Vitak et al., (2011). In addition, Vitak et al. (2011) in their study,

combined political activity performed and political activity observed at Facebook. This combination was also adopted for this study. For political activity performed the index represent “political activities of respondent on Facebook”, while for political activity observed the index represent “political activities observed by respondents on a friend’s Facebook page”. These two constitute the index of respondent’s online political participation on Facebook in this study.

As a result, therefore, the first part of the online political participation construct for political activity performed which are political activities performed by respondents on Facebook, the index questions contained 17 items. While the second part of the online political participation construct for political activity observed, which are political activities observed by respondents on Facebook, the index questions contained ten items. Seven items from political activities performed index were not included in the political activities performed index because they are political activities that can only be performed and cannot be observed by respondents on a friend’s network, owed to the private nature of the activities. For example, ‘discussing political information in a Facebook message’ cannot be observed, they can only be performed. In addition, the factor analysis conducted on the items has extracted the items in accordance with the factor of activities observed.

The research framework of this study has political interest as moderator, the items measuring this aspect were generated from a longitudinal study on citizenship education by Whiteley (2005) for National Foundation for Education Research. The

items of the measurement were found adaptable for measuring political interest in this study. However, some substitutions were made in the words of some items, for example, “I often discuss politics with my network” was changed to “I often discuss politics with my Facebook friends”. The change was justified as evidenced in previous researches where the same construct was adopted (Abdu, Mohamad, & Muda, 2017; Abdulrauf & Ishak, 2016). Consequently, the questionnaire contained close ended questions aimed at gauging the opinion of respondents on the topic of study. Equally, it will pave way for consistency in responses among respondents which was tailored towards a simpler analysis process.

All the items in the questionnaire were asked in English language because the respondents are all undergraduates who understand English. Similarly, the language content of the questionnaire was written in a simple English for easy understanding of the undergraduate. The questionnaire comprised questions divided into six sections. The first section contained demographic information of the respondents, while the five sections contained questions on the items of the study variables.

Table 3.5
Summary of Measurement Items

Variable/Measurement	Source of Adoption /Adaptation	Number of items	Meaning
Facebook Usage	Katz, Haas, &Gurevitch,1973; Papacharissi and Rubin (2000)	20	Telling others what to do, Keeping with current political issues and event, having fun, interacting with friends, telling others what to do
Facebook Intensity	Joinson, (2008) and Kaseraporn (2011)	29	Finding about friends, connecting with them, maintain relationship, feeling excited in using Facebook, checking Facebook before anything else.
Facebook Perception	Haque, Sarwar and Yasmin (2013)	17	Feeling of security while sharing information on Facebook, easy access, easy to log in, easy to upload a post.
Online political participation	Vitak et al. (2011)	27	Creation commenting, and sharing of political content such as political message, information, picture or text on personal, group or friend's wall.
Political Interest	Whiteley (2005)	08	Interest in politics, impact of politics in one's life, impact of politics on one's friends

The five point likert scale (5= strongly agree to 1 = strongly disagree), was used for the responses to the questions in order to ensure consistency.

3.8 Measurement of Variables

A number of validated instruments from previous studies were adapted to measure variables in this study. Also, a content validity of the study variables was conducted by experts who are PhD holders comprising of assistant professors and senior lecturers, who are teaching research in the communication field and internet studies, as well as veteran politicians and youth leaders. (See item 3.9 content validity) to assess the representativeness and clarity of each item to its underlying variable. In addition, a pilot study was also carried out to on a proportion of samples to pre-test the questionnaire. This was done to ensure the validity and reliability of the items of the questionnaire. The component of Facebook usage (cognitive usage, affective usage, personal integrative usage, social integrative usage and escapist usage), Facebook intensity (Emotional connection and Facebook friends) and Facebook perception (privacy, features, sharing information and accessibility) served as independent variables. While online political participation on Facebook w serve as dependent variable. An outline of the variable and measurement is provided below:

3.8.1 Facebook Usage

Facebook usage in this study refers to the usage of Facebook for accessing political knowledge and information to satisfy the information need; socialize with family, friends and relations need; Personal credibility, confidence, stability and personal status need; affective pleasure and emotional experiences need; escape from boredom, problems and relaxation need of user online. Facebook usage in this study has five factors viz cognitive usage, social integrative usage, affective usage,

personal integrative usage, and escapist usage were measured through adapted items from Katz, Haas and Gurevitch (1973) and Papacharissi & Rubin, 2000), with reported Cronbach's Alpha of 0.85, ($\alpha=0.85$) value. The items were modified to suit the context of this study for measuring cognitive usage social integrative usage affective usage, social integrative usage, and escapist usage that individuals sought for their use of Facebook. All items were measured on 5point scale (5= strongly agree to 1 = strongly disagree).

Table 3.6

Example of Response Items for Measuring Facebook Cognitive Usage

No	Item
1	I want to keep up with current issues and events
2	I want to find out how our government officials are performing
3	I want to confirm information from other sources keep up with current issues and events
4	I want to learn about academic issues

Source: Katz, Haas, & Gurevitch, 1973; Papacharissi & Rubin, 2000

3.8.2 Facebook Intensity

Facebook intensity (FBI) is a concept that is used to measure different aspect of Facebook use such as addiction, intensity of friendship, emotional intensity in using Facebook (de Vries & Kühne, 2015) Orosz, Tóth-Király, and Bőthe (2016) suggested that Facebook intensity can be examined with different self-reported measure. Therefore, Facebook intensity in the context of this study is user's strong emotional connection with the site and attachment of the user's to Facebook friends. Facebook Intensity has two dimensions viz emotional connection and Facebook friends. The

examples of the measurement of the dimensions and the source of adaptation is shown as follows:

3.8.2.1 Emotional Connection

The Emotional connection to Facebook as a dimension of Facebook intensity was measured with items adapted from Kaseraporn (2011). All items were measured on 5point Likert scale (5= strongly agree to 1=strongly disagree).

Table 3.7

Example of Response Items for Measuring Emotional Connection

No	Item
1	I always find myself emotionally stay on Facebook than intended
2	I always find myself neglect household chores to spend more time on Facebook
3	I always find myself feel excitement of using the Facebook to spending time with my friends
4	I always use Facebook for finding new relationships with Facebook users

Source: Kaseraporn (2011)

3.8.2.2 Facebook Friends

Facebook friends as a dimension of Facebook intensity will be measured with items adapted from Joinson (2008), the study reported Cronbach's alpha of 0.9,($\alpha=0.9$) value. All items were measured on 5pointLikert scale (5= strongly agree to 1=strongly disagree)

Table 3.8

Example of Items for Measuring of Attachment to Facebook Friends

No	Item
1	I use Facebook in Finding out what old friends are doing now.
2	I use Facebook in reconnecting with people I have lost contact with.
3	I use Facebook in connecting with people I otherwise would have lost contact with.
4	I use Facebook in finding people I haven't seen for a while

Source: Joinson (2008)

3.8.3 Facebook Perception

Facebook perception in this study refers to the Facebook users perceive privacy nature, available features of Facebook, accessibility nature of Facebook and information sharing provisions that are available on Facebook as a social media platform. Facebook perception in the context of this study has four dimensions; privacy, features, sharing information and accessibility. Facebook perception in this study was measured with scales adapted from Haque, Sarwar, Yasmin (2013), with reported Cronbach alpha of .89, ($\alpha=0.89$) value.

Table 3.9

Examples of Measurement Items of Facebook Perception

No	Item
1	Facebook provides confidentiality regarding my personal information to others
2	I feel secure while sharing information in Facebook
3	I feel comfortable to provide my personal information in Facebook
4	I think Facebook has more attractive features than other sites

Source: Haque, Sarwar and Yasmin (2013)

3.8.4 Online Political Participation

Online political participation in this study is the creation commenting, and sharing of content on political content on Facebook such as political message, information,

picture or text on personal, group or friend's wall, addressed at a specific audience and driven by a social purpose for measuring online political participation on Facebook as a dependent variable was measured with items adapted from Vitak et al. (2011), with reported Cronbach alpha of 0.75 ($\alpha=0.75$) value. All items were measured with a five point likert scale ranging from (5 as 'Always' to 1 as 'Never').

Table 3.10

Examples of Measurement Items of OPP (activities performed)

No	Item
1	Discussed political information in a Facebook message
2	Posted or shared a status update about politics
3	Posted or shared a photo about politics
4	Posted or shared a video about politics

Source: Vitak et al., (2011)

3.8.5 Political Interest

Political Interest is the motivation for individuals to participate in politics. Consequently, for political interest in relation to Facebook, measurement was adapted from Whiteley (2005). There are eight items that were asked on five point likert scale with "Strongly agree (5)" and "Strongly disagree (1)" as anchors.

Table 3.11

Examples of Measurement of Political Interest

No	Item
1	Most of my friends on my Facebook page are interested in politics
2	I am too busy to worry about politics
3	I often discuss politics with my social network
4	Politics makes no difference to people in my social network

Source: Whitely (2005)

3.8.6 Age

The age range of the respondents was drawn from the definition of youth by United Nation (2015) and the National Youth Policy of Nigeria (National Youth Policy, 2019). Which put the minimum age of a person to be considered as youth at 15 years. Therefore, the range of age from 15 years for the respondents was chosen in line with the minimum age definition of youth in Nigeria and also by the United Nation (UN). The age of 35 years is also not on the aging side considering that the maximum mandatory national youth service programme (NYSC) for all undergraduate in Nigeria is 30. Thus, the option for age will comprise: 15-19 years, 20-24 years, 25-29 years and 30-35 years old.

3.9 Content Validity

The degree to which the questionnaire items adapted for this study and their appropriateness for the constructs being measured were examined through a content validity study. Content validity, according to Polit and Beck (2006) concerns with the degree to which a sample of items, taken together, constitute an adequate operational definition of the construct. It is also the extent to which items of a construct adequately represent the research domain of interest of a particular phenomenon when it is measured (Wynd & Schmidt, 2003). Similarly, Beck and Gable (2001) indicated the need for a researcher to evaluate the relevance of the variable's items through expert assessment. One of the widely process which researchers use in assessing the content of their research instrument is the content validity index (CVI) (Beck & Gable, 2001; Martuza, 1977).

Therefore, the content validity undertaken in this study was aimed at identifying any item which may be unclear and unrepresentative in the adapted variables in this study. Furthermore, Lynn (1986) identified the criteria for content validity, which include that each variable item are rated by experts in terms of its relevance to the underlying variable. Similarly, a panel of five or less experts must agree with the rating of an item at 1.00 content validity index score, however, when the panel consist of six or more panel experts the rating of an item can be relaxed to 0.78 content validity index score (Lynn, 1986).

In line with scholars, for instance, Lynn (1986) and Waltz and Bausell (1981) recommended at least three experts for content validity. However, Gable and Wolf (1993) recommended that the appropriate number of experts should be between two and 20. As a result, for this study, 15 questionnaires were distributed to 15 experts who comprises of academics, media expert, and politicians. The questionnaire contains 101 items in the five variable, namely; Facebook usage variable has 20 items, Facebook Intensity variable has 29 items, Facebook perception variable has 17 items, online political participation variable has 27 items, and political Interest variable has 08 items. Each of the 15 experts, was either a professor/lecturer in universities or an experienced politician, with university qualifications of PhDs and degrees in communication or political science related fields. They were required to rate each item of the variable in the questionnaire based on a 4-point ordinal scale.

The rating is based on the recommendation of Lynn (1986) and Davis (1992), that experts should evaluate the questionnaire based on two labels i.e. representativeness and clarity of the items. For representativeness, the scale intended to measure the expert's evaluation of the items based on if: (4) item is representative (3) item needs minor revisions to be representative, (2) item needs major revisions to be representative, while (1) item is not representative. Similarly, for clarity, the scale intended to evaluate the items if: (4) item is clear, (3) item needs minor revision to be clear, (2) item needs major revisions to be clear (1) item is not clear. The Content Validity Index (CVI) is calculated based on both the representation and clarity of the items and according to Polit and Beck (2006), items rated as three or four by the experts are considered as well.

Consequently, only 11 out of the 15 experts rated and returned the questionnaire, the eleven experts that examined the content validity of the questionnaire were drawn from various universities and polytechnics in Nigeria and Malaysia; Universiti Utara Malaysia (UUM), Bayero University Kano Nigeria (BUK), Ahmadu Bello University (ABU), University of Maiduguri and Kaduna Polytechnic. Seven of the eleven experts are all PhD holders comprising of Assistant Professors and Senior Lecturers, all with experiences of 20 years and above in teaching and research in communication field, mass communication, internet studies, Information and Communication Technology related studies. While the other experts have experience of 15 years and above in the use of social media, information and communication technology ICT

and political activities in Nigeria, one of the experts owned a multimedia company, Duniyar Computer in Nigeria.

The results of the rating of the 101 items of the five variables of the questionnaire by eleven experts based on representativeness showed that 95 items have CVI scores of 0.82 to 1.00. (See appendix B). Lynn (1986) has recommended that when six or more experts evaluate items of a variable, then any item with a CVI score of 0.78 and above is considered as good item. Therefore, 95 items of the questionnaire are good representation of the study variables. However, the result of the CVI showed that the remaining six items have CVI scores from 0.64 to 0.73 respectively. Nevertheless, the items were retained based on the acceptable Cronbach alpha of the items as reported by the source of the items adaptation. For instance, Katz, Haas and Gurevitch (1973) and Papacharissi and Rubin (2000) from whom the items on Facebook usage were adapted have reported Cronbach alpha of 0.85 for item 8 of Facebook usage variable, Cronbach alpha of 0.82 for item 12 of Facebook usage variable and Cronbach alpha of 0.93 for item 18 of Facebook usage variable. Similarly, item 16 of Facebook perception variable was retained because Haque, Sarwar, and Yasmin (2013) from whom the item was originally adapted reported an acceptable Cronbach alpha of 0.89 for the item. Also, items 11 and 8 of Facebook intensity variable were retained because Joinson (2008) from whom the items were originally adapted reported an acceptable Cronbach alpha of 0.72 and 0.79 respectively for the two items.

The results of the rating of the 101 items of the five variables of the questionnaire by eleven experts based on clarity showed that 93 items have CVI scores of 0.82 to 1.00. (See appendix B). Davis (1992) and Lynn (1986) have recommended that when six or more experts conduct a CVI evaluation of items of a variable, then any item with a CVI score of 0.78 and above is considered as good item. Therefore, 93 items of the questionnaire are rated as clear items of the study variables. While the remaining 8 items have CVI scores from 0.64 to 0.73 respectively.

However, the items were retained based on the acceptable Cronbach alpha of the items as reported by the sources of the items adaptation. For instance, Papacharissi and Rubin (2000) from whom items on Facebook usage were adapted have reported Cronbach alpha of 0.87 for item 2 of Facebook usage variable, Cronbach alpha of 0.85 for item 8 of Facebook usage variable and Cronbach alpha of 0.93 for item 11 of the Facebook usage variable. Similarly, item 3 and item 16 of Facebook perception variable were retained because Haque, Sarwar and Yasmin (2013) from whom the items were originally adapted reported an acceptable Cronbach alpha of 0.87 for the item 3 and 0.89 for item 16 respectively. Additionally, three items of Facebook intensity variable, items 12, 16 and 17 were also retained based on the acceptable Cronbach alpha of 0.75 for item 12, Cronbach alpha of 0.79 for item 16 and Cronbach alpha of 0.79 for item 17 as reported by Joinson (2008) from whom the items were originally adapted.

Table 3.12

Changes and Modification on Items for Clarity.

Variable Name	Variable Number	Original statement of the variable	Modified statement after content validation
Facebook Usage	FBU 2	I use Facebook to find out how government officials are performing	I use Facebook to find out information about activities of government officials
	FBU11	I want to support my own political viewpoints to other people	I want to present my own political viewpoints to other people
	FBU12	I want to tell others what to do	I want to Influence others on what to do
Facebook Intensity	FBI 4	I use Facebook to respond whenever I receive a friend request	I use Facebook to check on friend request
	FBI 7	I use Facebook in organizing events	I use Facebook in sending invitations to friends for events
	FBI 10	I use Facebook in watching friends online	I use Facebook in meeting friends online
	FBI 11	I always find myself stay on Facebook than intended	sometimes, I find myself staying on Facebook longer than intended
	FBI 15	I always find myself feel excitement in using the Facebook to spending time with my friends	Sometimes, I feel excited when using Facebook than when spending time with my friends
	FBI 19	I always becomes defensive when anyone asks me what I do on Facebook”	Sometimes I become defensive when I am asked about my activities on Facebook
	FBI 20	I always find good thinking about Facebook replacing my bad thinking about my life	Sometimes, I find good thinking when using Facebook that replaces my bad thinking about life
Facebook Perception	FBI 21	I always find myself anticipating when I will be on Facebook again	Sometimes, I find myself eager to be on Facebook again
	FBP 3	I believe that Facebook has strong privacy system	I believe that privacy system of Facebook is strong
	FBI 11	I consider I can share what I have in mind on Facebook	I can share what I have in mind on Facebook
Political Interest	FBP16	Ensuring fast accessibility is important to me	Fast accessibility of Facebook is important to me
	PI 7	I know about politics than most of my Facebook friends	I know more about politics than most of my Facebook friends
	P8	Sometimes politics seem so complicated that I cannot understand	Politics is easy for me to understand

3.10 Instrument Pilot Testing

Although the study has adapted an instrument that has been validated, and it was also given to experts who scrutinized and validated content of the instrument, their comments and observations were noted and subsequently used in improving the instrument based on their remarks. However, the adapted instrument was moreover subjected to a further statistical purification process. This involves reliability analysis and factor analysis. The statistical package for social science (SPSS) statistical software was used to test the statistical reliability of the research instrument and to run an exploratory factor analysis of the research instrument.

3.10.1 Validity and Reliability Analysis

Validity refers to the degree to which a study measures what it intends to measure (Wimmer & Dominick, 2014). Reliability is the degree in which any instrument can be referred to as error -free which will in turn produce consistent results. Hair et al (2014) notes that reliability is the degree to which the observed variable measures the “true” values and are error free. The extent to which reliability test works on tested construct is that it will yield consistent results on any repeated trials. One of the methods of evaluating the construct’s internal consistency in research is through using the Cronbach’s Co-efficient Alpha as the means of establishing the congruence of the items with the variables or items they are evaluating. Therefore, the method was adopted to identify the internal consistency of the study variables and also to ascertain the reliability of the study items.

3.10.2 Factor Analysis

Factor analysis is a process of assessing the construct validity of a questionnaire through which the correspondence between an item and its variable can be determined (Hair et al. 2014). This makes possible for the amount of items loaded on a factor or the structure of a variable to be determined. Visual inspection of the correlation coefficient matrix is also considered to ascertain that items in the data set have 0.30 and above as their coefficients. The Bartlett's test of sphericity will be ascertained to be significant ($P < .05$). The Keiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO)'s measures of sampling adequacy will be verified not to be less than 0.05 or above. (Hair et al. 2014).

Therefore, in this study, both the exploratory factor analysis (EFA) and the confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), which is aimed at testing whether the predetermined set of construct can influence responses as exactly as how it has been predicted was done particularly for data summarization and reduction. Factor analysis is particularly essential because of the need to test the reliability of the items adopted which were from different sources (authors) merging them together to measure a single construct require further confirmation through exploratory factor analysis (EFA)

3.11 Pilot Test Result

The pilot study was carried out between November and December 2016 among some students of KASU in Nigeria. This step was taken because of the need to ensure that the pilot study was carried out among the population with similar characteristics to

the target population (Creswell, 2014; Sekaran & Bougie, 2016). And to ascertain the suitability of the instrument for the study environment. The pilot study was conducted among 60 respondents and the data obtained from the pilot test was subjected to validity and reliability analysis and also exploratory factor analysis.

3.11.1 Profile of Respondents

The participant in this pilot study were youth undergraduates. The youth undergraduate were particularly found to be the early adopters and heavy users of social media (Kushin & Yamamoto, 2010). Added to it, they are among the group of people that use Facebook most in the society (Al-Kandari & Hasanen, 2012; Checkoway, 2011; Dagona, Karick, & Abubakar, 2013). According to Roscoe (1975) sample sizes of larger than 30 and less than 500 are appropriate for most research. Therefore, sixty youth undergraduates of Kaduna State University KASU that participated in the pilot test, the majority of the respondents were male (60.0%); most of the respondents were between the ages of 20 to 25 (46.7%) who were drawn from five faculties of the university. All the respondents have a Facebook account, while quite number of them (31.7%) have more than 500 friends each on Facebook; with the majority of them (50.0%) belonging to not less than 10 Facebook groups. The result also indicates that most of them (35.7%) spend not less than 3 hours per week browsing the Facebook, while (18.0%) spent more than 14 hours per week on Facebook and this will enable them to participate in politics online. Table 3.13 provided the detail of the demographic profile of the respondents.

Table 3.13

Detail of Demographic Profile of Respondents of Pilot Test Sample (n=60)

Variable	Frequency	Percentage
Age		
15-19	06	10.0
20-25	28	46.7
25-29	18	30.0
30-35	08	13.3
Total	60	100
Gender		
Male	36	60.0
Female	24	40.0
Total	60	100
Faculty of Arts	23	38.3
Faculty of Science	16	26.7
Faculty of Social & Management Science	09	15.0
Faculty of Medicine & Pharmaceutical Science	04	6.7
Faculty of Agriculture Environmental Science	08	13.3
Total	60	100
Facebook Account		
Yes	60	100
No	-	-
Total	60	100
Number of friends on Facebook		
100 or Less	16	26.7
101- 300	15	25.0
301- 500	10	16.7
500 or more	19	31.7
Total	60	100
Time spent on Facebook per week		
Less than 3 hours per week	21	35.0
3-6 hours	11	18.3
7-10 hours	13	21.7
11-14 hours	04	6.7
More than 14 hours	11	18.3
Total	60	100
Number of Facebook Groups		
Less than 10 groups	30	50.0
11-20 groups	10	16.7
21-29 groups	07	11.7
30 and above	13	21.7
Total	60	100

3.11.2 Reliability Analysis Result

Reliability test was conducted to ensure if all items were actually reliable and measuring what they should measure. It was also used to calculate the internal consistency of the research instrument which measured the independent, dependents and moderating variables. Cronbach's Alpha was highlighted in the analysis as fairly standard in most discussions of reliability test in research (Cronbach, 1970), Cronbach's alpha was used as a tool to test the reliability and to remove items with low item-total correlations (<0.30) while retaining the items with desired reliability levels (Keyton, 2015). The level of acceptance for the reliability in a research depends on the purpose of the research project (Keyton, 2015). However, Nunnally (1978) argues that in the stage of a pilot test of research reliabilities of 0.50 to 0.60 would suffice. Thus, for this study, the target level of minimum reliability was set in the 0.70 to 0.80 range. The result of the Cronbach alpha as calculated for each construct in this pilot study is as follows

However, to ensure that the domain coverage, for example content validity, of the construct would not suffer a check is made before any item is deleted. As a result, two items with low item-total correlations below 0.30 were dropped from Facebook usage construct and the subsequent Cronbach alpha for Facebook usage is now 0.888. While seven items were also dropped from Facebook Intensity construct and the subsequent Cronbach alpha is now 0.906. Similarly, two items were also dropped from online political participation construct and the subsequent Cronbach alpha is now 0.906. Therefore, the length of the constructs was significantly reduced.

The result of the reliability test of the instrument has shown a high degree of confidence in the constructs and their content validity. The result was a 90 item instrument, comprising five constructs based on a 5 point likert scale all with an acceptable level of reliability. However, the lower value recorded for the potential items for deletion could be due to the small samples involved in the pilot testing. The deleted items will be reworded and restructured in the main study because the number of the observations i.e. respondents in the main study will be more and the reliability of the deleted items is expected to improve (El Hajjar, 2014). The instrument was used to conduct the main study.

3.11.3 Exploratory Factor Analysis Result

Exploratory factor analysis was used to understand the structure of a set of variables and also to reduce a data set into a more manageable size and at the same time retain the original information (Pallant, 2005). The data collected from the pilot study was also analysed using the SPSS statistical software to run an exploratory factor analysis of the research instrument. Henson and Roberts (2006) have reported an exploratory factor analysis conducted with 42 sample size. While, Fabrigar, MacCallum, Wegener and Strahan (1999) reported an exploratory factor analysis conducted with 30 sample size. Similarly, MacCallum, Widaman, Zhang, and Hong (1999) in their review of sample size for factor analysis in researches have reported studies with 60 subjects as a minimum sample size. Additionally, Lingard and Rowlinson (2006) in their review of a sample size of the Factor analysis of 31 studies have reported that

eight studies have 31 to 60 sample size. However, this pilot study has a minimum sample size of 60.

The factor analysis for this pilot study was conducted by multiple running of the data to extract the factors, therefore, while running the data for factor extraction, a series of re run of the data were made before arriving at the final extraction. The result of the multiple running of the data for exploratory factor analysis (EFA) yielded the results of the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy (KMO), Bartlett's Test of Sphericity (BTS) and rotated component matrix for the constructs.

Facebook usage construct has a Bartlett's test of Sphericity greater than 5 and a KMO measure of sampling adequacy of 0.713 for Facebook usage, 0.732 for Facebook Intensity, 0.791 for Facebook perception, 0.842 for Online political participation, which are all far greater than 0.60. Which indicates that they are all statistically significant. The factor analysis of the Facebook usage construct has extracted five factors, the Facebook Intensity has extracted two factors, the Facebook Perception has extracted four factors, and the online political participation has extracted two factors while Political interest has extracted one single factor similar to the single dimension of the adapted instrument.

In sum, results of the exploratory factor analysis test of validity for of all items, showed that the items of each variable has a statistical significant of 0.70 greater than 0.60 which indicates that each item of a variable correlates with each other and it is

statistically significant. However, the few items that did not seem to correlate with each other could have been reworded and restructured in the main study because the number of the observations i.e. respondents in the main study will be more and the factor extraction is expected to correlate with all the items of the construct. As specified, the researcher did not plan to delete these items as previous research which used the same instruments (Katz, Haas, & Gurevitch, 1973; Kaseraporn, 2011) had shown no validity problems with the items in the instruments. Hence, the occurrence of this problem could be due to the few number of respondents involved in the pilot study, which was less than 100. Therefore, validity problem is not anticipated to occur in the main study, if the number of respondents were increased. In addition, the individual items did not reflect the variable as a whole and thus, the variable could be regarded valid.

3.12 Method of Data Collection of Main Study

The main data collection for this study was conducted through questionnaire administration between March and June 2017 in the research area. The unit of analysis was an individual youth in KASU. The researcher presented evidence of undertaking research to the management of KASU to seek its support for easy conduct of the research in the institution. The approach provided the researchers with easy access to the respondents. This distribution of the self-administered questionnaire to the respondents was done by the researcher with the help of eight research assistants. Each group of two assistants was assigned to three faculties, while two assistants were

assigned to the remaining two faculties each for the distribution of the questionnaire to number of sampled respondents. The assistants were trained on how to help the respondents in making choices from the options given or supply accurate information where required.

3.13 Method of Data Analysis of Main study

From the objective of this study, the data collected was analysed using both descriptive and inferential analyses to test of the relationship among the variables, the data analysis was presented in both tabular form and through the use of statistical analysis. The collected data were both categorical and continuous, therefore, the descriptive aspect of the data was presented in the frequency table for descriptive purposes. Furthermore, the study is interested in the significance of the relationship among the variables, hence, structural modelling analysis (SEM) was carried out. The statistical packages for social science (SPSS) and Smart PLS were used for analysis of the data. The PLS was used to test the relationship among all the variables of this study. The PLS-SEM was used through two step evaluation models (measurement model and structural model).The method includes:

3.13.1 Descriptive Statistic

A descriptive analysis of categorical data such as demographic variables in terms of the frequency, mean and standard deviation, also the correlation analysis of the relationship between the variables was presented. Frequency and percentage was used to inspect demographic variable characteristics such as gender and faculty of study.

Similarly, the mean and standard deviation were used to analyse the collected data about age and year of study.

3.13.2 Inferential Statistics

The continuous data of this study came from the responses of the ordinal and interval scale of the questionnaire data. Hence, Exploratory Data Analysis (EDA) and hypotheses testing in this study were examined using the inferential statistic. The SPSS was used for this examination of data for the purpose of ensuring that the data is free of missing values, outliers and for the normality of the data. In addition, it was used to run t-test for examining the differences between the categorical variable of gender in the study.

3.13.2.1 Exploratory Data Analysis (EDA)

The EDA was done to examine the fitness of the data collected for further PLS analysis. At this stage the preliminary analysis and data screening such as non-response bias test, detection of outliers and normality of the data were tested.

3.13.2.2 Partial Least Square PLS Structural Modelling Analysis (SEM)

PLS SEM, a multivariate non parametric analysis technique was used to test the hypotheses of this study. Specifically, The PLS was used to model the relationship between Facebook usage, Facebook intensity Facebook perception and online political participation. PLS was chosen because of its non-parametric nature that could be used to analyse measurement and structural model simultaneously (Hensler,

Ringle, & Sarstedt, 2012). Thus, it can form a Hierarchical Construct Model (HCM) with a multidimensional construct (Lohmoller, 1989) which is the nature of this study. Similarly, it can be used to explain and predict the variance of a target construct by different explanatory construct, which is the aim of this study. In addition, PLS is suitable in accommodating studies where some constructs have many items (Hensler, 2010) like the construct of Facebook intensity which has 29 items and online political participation which has 27 items.

Consequently, in this study PLS SEM was used to analyse the measurement model by calculating the average variance extracted, the composite reliability of the items, convergent validity and discriminant validity of the constructs were assessed. While, the second aspect of the PLS examined the structural model to assess the significance of the path model, the effect size and predictive relevance of the model. The study findings were presented in the form of an equation and graphical presentation for easy discussion and finally a conclusion was drawn.

3.13.2.3 Measurement Model Assessment

The reflective measurement model in this study was analysed using the PLS. The model was determined by calculating internal consistency reliability, indicator reliability convergent validity and discriminant validity (Hair et al., 201). The suggested threshold values for these analysis are shown in Table 3.21

Table 3.14
Threshold Values for Measurement Model

Tested Element	Threshold Value
Internal consistency reliability	Composite Reliability > 0.70
Indicator Reliability	Outer Loadings > 0.50
Convergent Validity	Average variance extracted > 0.50
Discriminant Validity	Cross Loadings, AVE > 0.50 Fornell and Lacker criterion, HTMT criterion > 0.85 or > 0.90

3.13.2.4 Structural Model Assessment.

The Structural measurement model in this study was also analysed using the PLS. The structural model allows researchers to test the hypothesized relationships in a study, the model as assessed for collinearity issues, path coefficients assessment (conventional t-values), assessment of coefficient of determination (R²), assessment of effect size (f²) and assessment of predictive relevance (Q²). The suggested threshold values for the assessment are shown Table 3.22

Table 3.15
Threshold Values for Structural Model

Tested Element	Threshold Value
Multicollinearity	Tolerance < 0.2, VIF > 5
Coefficient of Determination (R ²)	0.19, 0.33, 0.67
Effect Size (f ²)	0.02, 0.15, 0.35
Predictive Relevance (Q ²)	>0

3.14 Chapter Summary

The chapter presented the methodological approaches to be employed in this research and every activity that will be undertaken in order to solve the research problem, answer the research questions and accomplish the outlined objectives in the research, accompanied by appropriate justifications. The process to be employed for identifying the population of the study, sample size, sampling procedure, data collection and the instrument employed for data collection were all presented and clearly described, the content of the instrument was further subjected to expert validation, in addition, a piloted research was undertaken to check the reliability of the instruments and refining the measurement items through (EFA). Subsequently, the instrument containing the purified items was prepared for the main survey. Finally, the chapter presents and outline some of the various analyses and analytical techniques to be employed in the study. In the next chapter, the actual analysis of the main survey data are presented, starting with data cleaning and transformation process to hypotheses testing and findings.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULT ANALYSIS AND FINDINGS

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the analysis and findings of the data from the questionnaire collected from the respondents through self-administered questionnaire. The data collected were analysed using the statistical package for social science (SPSS) Statistics for descriptive analysis of the profile of respondents, data cleaning and transformation process and other inferential statistics. The data were also analysed using the Smart PLS, an analysis software for testing the measurement model and testing the hypothesized structural model. The presentation and analysis of the findings start with the analysis of response rate. This is followed by data cleaning and transformation which include detection and treatment of missing data, non-response bias rate, detection and treatment of outliers, normality tests, multicollinearity test, common method bias test, reliability and validity tests and discussions on demographic statistics of respondents. These processes are important for confirming that the data that would be used in the research analysis and findings have fulfilled the statistical assumptions needed for data analysis. All the analyses were undertaken at the multivariate level. Finally, the chapter discusses hypotheses testing and findings.

4.2 Analysis of Response Rate

The rate of response of the questionnaire was emphasized by researchers because of the need to ensure that questionnaires that were retrieved from the field are valid and

usable for data analysis (Hair et al, 2010). In this study a total of 600 questionnaires were distributed to respondents through the help of research assistants. This approach has helped in yielding a high return rate of 529 representing (88%) out of the 600 distributed questionnaires. The collected questionnaires were coded into Statistical Packages for Social Sciences (SPSS). Hair et al. (2010) suggested for the exclusion of questionnaire with incomplete or multiple answers from data analysis, unless the exclusion will reduce the number of the sample size, and thus, a total of 23 questionnaires were excluded and rejected from the process of coding because they were found with incomplete pages, some with multiple answers, while some are incorrectly completed as required in the questionnaire. Likewise, in the process of cleaning and transforming the data, 33 copies of questionnaire were found to have univariate and multivariate outliers which were considered not eligible for further analysis and thus removed from the data set. Therefore, a total of 56 questionnaires were removed while 473 questionnaires representing (79%) retained and used for further analysis as illustrated in Table 4.1

Table 4.1
Response Rate of the Questionnaire

Response	Frequency	Percentage
Distributed questionnaires	600	100%
Returned questionnaires	529	88%
Questionnaire not returned	71	12%
Rejected questionnaires	56	09%
Usable questionnaires	473	79%

However, in this study 473 responses was considered adequate for this study based on the argument of Sekaran and Bougie (2016) that even the response rate of 30% is acceptable for surveys. Similarly, the number was considered enough as the

population of the study as indicated in methodology section of this study (Sekaran & Bougie, 2016). Additionally, this response rate of 79% is considered adequate based on the recommendation that sample size should be 5 to 10 times the number of variables in a study (Bartlett, Kotrlik, & Higgins, 2001; Hair *et al.*, 2010). Since this study consist of five variables, 50 samples is accordingly enough for analysis in line with the above recommendation. Equally, in Nigeria, the common response rate for social science studies is 40% - 50% (Adeloye, Basquill, Aderemi, Thompson, & Obi, 2015). Consequently, this study's 79% response rate is adequate for the study.

4.3 Data Cleaning and Transformation

In the process of quantitative research analysis, the collected data after being coded is still subjected to certain data cleaning and transformation process of checking for errors and correcting the error in the data set (Pallant, 2010). Data cleaning is prepared mainly for the purpose of refining the data, removing unwanted data and normalizing it for further analysis. Failure to screen and clean the data may result to distorted data analysis. Similarly, Hair *et al.* (2014) pointed out that multivariate data require rigorous examination in order to overcome the problem of outliers, and the challenge of missing data which can substantially affect the findings of the study. Therefore, the multivariate nature of the design of this study makes data cleaning imperative for conducting certain statistical analyses. Thus, this study adopted the process of assessing non-bias response, checking and treating missing values, checking and treating outliers, assessing normality, and then multicollinearity, homoscedasticity respectively as discussed in the following sub-headings.

4.3.1 Detection and Treatment of Missing Data

Missing data occurs when a respondent failed to complete information regarding one or more question in a survey thereby rendering the information incomplete for analysis (Allison, 2003; Dong & Peng, 2013) or as a result of data /code entry error, or when respondents are asked to skip certain questions that are not applicable to them (Baraldi & Enders, 2010; Hair et al., 2010). Missing data had been regarded to be of a major concern to researchers due to its negative effects on the results of the analysis. Therefore, in this study, following the suggestion of Allison (2003) the researcher/research assistants have made efforts in order to ensure that all the questions were properly responded, the respondents were fully briefed by the research assistants recruited for the study and completed questionnaires were all immediately checked all through pages at point of collection this approach became advantageous in two ways. It yields a high return rate for the questionnaire. It also eventually minimizes the possibility of missing data. Hence, the cases of these missing data were significantly reduced in the study.

However, after coding the data into SPSS software, preliminary check for missing values was done and sixty five cases were found. They were thus treated and replaced using SPSS SMEANS which automatically takes the mean values as replacement as shown in table 4.2. Analysis using PLS-SEM is very sensitive to missing data hence the need to check and replace it.

Table 4.2
Missing Data Analysis

Latent Variable	Total No of Missing Values
Facebook Usage	21
Facebook Intensity	16
Facebook Perception	07
Online Political Participation	12
Political Interest	09
Total	65 out of 47773 data points
Percentage	0.14%

Note: Percentage of missing values is calculated by dividing the total number of missing values by total number of data points multiplied by 100

4.3.2 Detection and Treatment of Outliers

The next stage in data cleaning is always the detection of outliers and their treatment. An outlier is a score in a data set with an unusual figure on one variable or a combination of unusual figures across numerous variables that might constitute a significant effect on the analysis and the result of the study (Hair et al., 2010). It is also a data entry with such an extreme value on one variable (a univariate outlier) or such an abnormal combination of scores on two or more variables (multivariate outlier) that might distort statistics (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). This means that any observation or data entry that is numerically distant from the rest of the data set.

The need for detecting and treating outlier is to delete the extreme high or low values that could result in non- normality of data and create a critical problem of multivariate data analysis (Hair et al., 2010; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Therefore, detecting and

treating outliers is very essential in a given multivariate analysis because it may affect the SEM analysis even with a normally distributed data (Haenlein & Kaplan, 2004; Lomax, 2013). Consequently, Hair *et al.*, (2010) and Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) recommends that univariate outliers, can be detected when all the raw scores of a variable in the distribution are changed to a standardized z-scores values, and all cases with a standardized z-score values above 3.29 were considered to be univariate outliers. Therefore, in line with the recommendation of Hair *et al.* (2010) and Tabachnick and Fidell (2007), this study checked and identified a total of 25 univariate outliers' cases with large z-score values in the dataset coded in the SPSS software. As a yardstick, all cases with a standardized z-score values above 3.29 were considered to be univariate outliers and thus, removed from the dataset (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007).

Likewise, for multivariate outliers, the Mahalanobis measure can be used in detecting and treating them (Haenlein & Kaplan, 2004; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). The procedure to detect multivariate outliers is to run Mahalanobis in the SPSS software and then compare the values with that of the chi-square table (Tabachnick & Fidell 2007). This procedure was followed in this study. Thus, any score with a Mahalanobis Distance above the computed value is considered a multivariate outlier in this study which should be deleted from the dataset. By this process, 8 cases of multivariate outliers were detected. They involved case numbers 7, 23, 76, 111, 308, 335 and 445. As a yardstick, all the 8 cases established to be multivariate were deleted from the dataset for further analysis.

4.3.3 Non Response Bias

Non-response bias refers to the variations that occur in the answers between respondents of the questionnaire and non-respondents (Sheikh & Mattingly, 1981). Thus, bias can emanate from the instrument, interviewer, respondents, and/or the situation (Sekaran & Bougie, 2018). Therefore, the need to clear the myth of losing valuable information to non- response bias necessitated for the test of statistical significance of response and non-response bias. As a result, scholars like Olson, (2006) and Malhotra, Hall, Shaw and Oppenheim (2006) have argued that late respondents could as well pass for non- respondents because of the assumption that late respondents may also fail to respond at all if not for the series of follow ups or pressures from the researcher or assistant researchers on them. Furthermore, Malhotra et al. (2006) noted that late respondents are regarded to have the same characteristics with the late respondents.

However, the probability of non- response bias is usually calculated through a time-trend extrapolation procedure, by way of comparing both respondents and non-respondents or the early and late respondents (Armstrong & Overton, 1977), this study considered the suggestions made by the scholars and categorized the respondents into two groups based on response time to look if possible bias existed. That is, (1) early respondents (those that returned the questionnaire within two weeks of distribution); and (2) late respondents (those that returned the questionnaire more than two weeks after the date of distribution). The categorization placed 270 respondents into one group and the remaining in the other. The researcher then ran an

independent samples t-test between the groups and the latent variables of Facebook usage, Facebook Intensity, Facebook Perception and Online Political Participation to look at the mean of the two groups and its significance level. This method was considered adequate as it has been adopted by a number of researcher (Azar et al., 2016; Rao, 2013; Sedgwick, 2014; Sheikh & Mattingly, 1981)

Table 4.3
T-test Results for Non-Responses Bias

Variables	Groups	N	Mean	Std.Deviation	Std.Error mean	LavenesTest of Equality	
						F	Sig
FBU	Early Response	270	3.56	0.628	.038	.518	.472
	Late Response	203	3.59	0.636	.045		
FBI	Early Response	270	3.46	0.669	.041	1.110	.293
	Late Response	203	3.56	0.755	.053		
FBP	Early Response	270	3.46	0.680	.041	4.251	.040
	Late Response	203	3.56	0.769	.054		
OPP	Early Response	270	3.19	0.801	.049	2.409	.121
	Late Response	203	3.21	0.872	.061		

The result of independent samples test as shown in Table 4.5 the early respondents were 270 (57%) while the late respondents were the 203 (43%) whom responded to the questionnaire after sixty from the questionnaire distribution. The result revealed

that the independent sample T-test indicates that the equal variance significance values for each of the four study variables is greater than the 0.05 significance level of lavene's test for equality of variance (Pallant, 2010).

In the overall, the results from the table above suggest that there was no significant difference between the two groups. Consequently, this show that there is no presence of bias in the data collected. Therefore, the earlier assumption of researcher Malhotra et al. (2006) and Sekaran (2000) on how non-responses could possibly affect the ability to generalize the findings is adequately addressed. Additionally, non-response bias has already been tackled in this study by having 79% response rate, which is above the 50% that was recommended by (Lindner, James & Wingenbach, 2002).

4.3.4 Normality Tests

Normality of data refers to data distribution, which is a major assumption in multivariate analysis, especially if the objective is to make inference (Hair et al., 2010; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Although, normality test of a study variables is not necessary required before analysing the data, but, it is found to be better if a study variables are normally distributed (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Result of analysis is usually degraded, if the study variables are not normally distributed (Hair *et al.*, 2010; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007).

Testing of normality is done by either statistical or graphical techniques (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). However, the statistical method used primarily by researchers to

test the normality of data distribution are Kurtosis and Skewness test and the Kolmogorov and Shapiro method (Hair et al., 2010; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007).

4.3.4.1 Skewness and Kurtosis Test

The Skewness reveals the symmetry of a variable's distribution while the Kurtosis reveals the peakedness of a variable's distribution as either too peaked (with short, thick tails) or too flat (with long, thin tails) (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). In this study, the SPSS software was used to test skewness and kurtosis, the results for each individual variable was analysed in the study by means, standard deviations, and skewness and Kurtosis values. The value of skewness is between -0.396 and 0.103; and the value of Kurtosis is between -0.517 and 0.115 respectively. The results indicate that the data of the study are within the acceptable level of normality assumption. Data does not violate the normality assumption if the skewness is lower than 3.00 and kurtosis is lower than 10.00. Even though PLS-SEM is compatible with non-normal data without any problem but the results tend to be better if it is normalized. Therefore, both the skewness and Kurtosis are all less than 1.0 which indicated that there is a very good level of data quality, as shown in Table 4.4.

Table 4.4
Result of Skewness and Kurtosis Values

Construct	Skewness	Standard Error	Kurtosis	Standard Error
Facebook Usage	-.249	.112	-.115	.224
Facebook Intensity	-.295	.112	.118	.224
Facebook Perception	-.149	.112	-.233	.224
Online Political Participation	-.103	.112	-.517	.224
Political Interest	-.396	.112	.280.	.224

4.3.4.2 Kolmogorov and Shapiro Test

Additionally, this study also employed the Kolmogorov- Smirnov and Shapiro -Wilk statistic tests (Field, 2009) to test the normality of the study data. Therefore, the test revealed that all variables are found to be significant as shown in table (Table 4.5). Pallant (2010) suggests that it is very infrequent to have Kolmogorov- Smirnov with large sample more than 200 which is non normality. Thus, a significant test does not reveal departure from normality of data (Field, 2009).

Table 4.5
Result of Kolmogorov- Shapiro Test

Construct	Kolmogorov-Smirno v(a)			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
Facebook Usage	.156	473	.000	.942	473	.000
Facebook Intensity	.161	473	.000	.952	473	.000
Facebook Perception	.144	473	.000	.953	473	.000
Online Political Participation	.119	473	.000	.963	473	.000
Political Interest	.194	473	.000	.935	473	.000

Similarly, the graphical technique was also used to assess the normality of the study data (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). A histogram was plotted based on the frequency of values, the Mean and Standard Deviation. The histogram affords the researcher with a visual representation of the frequency distribution that help in checking whether the distribution of the data is normal (Allen, Titsworth, & Hunt, 2008). The results of the histogram (Figure 4.1) showed that the residuals were well distributed and fell within the normal curve and the tails lied on the normal distribution line.

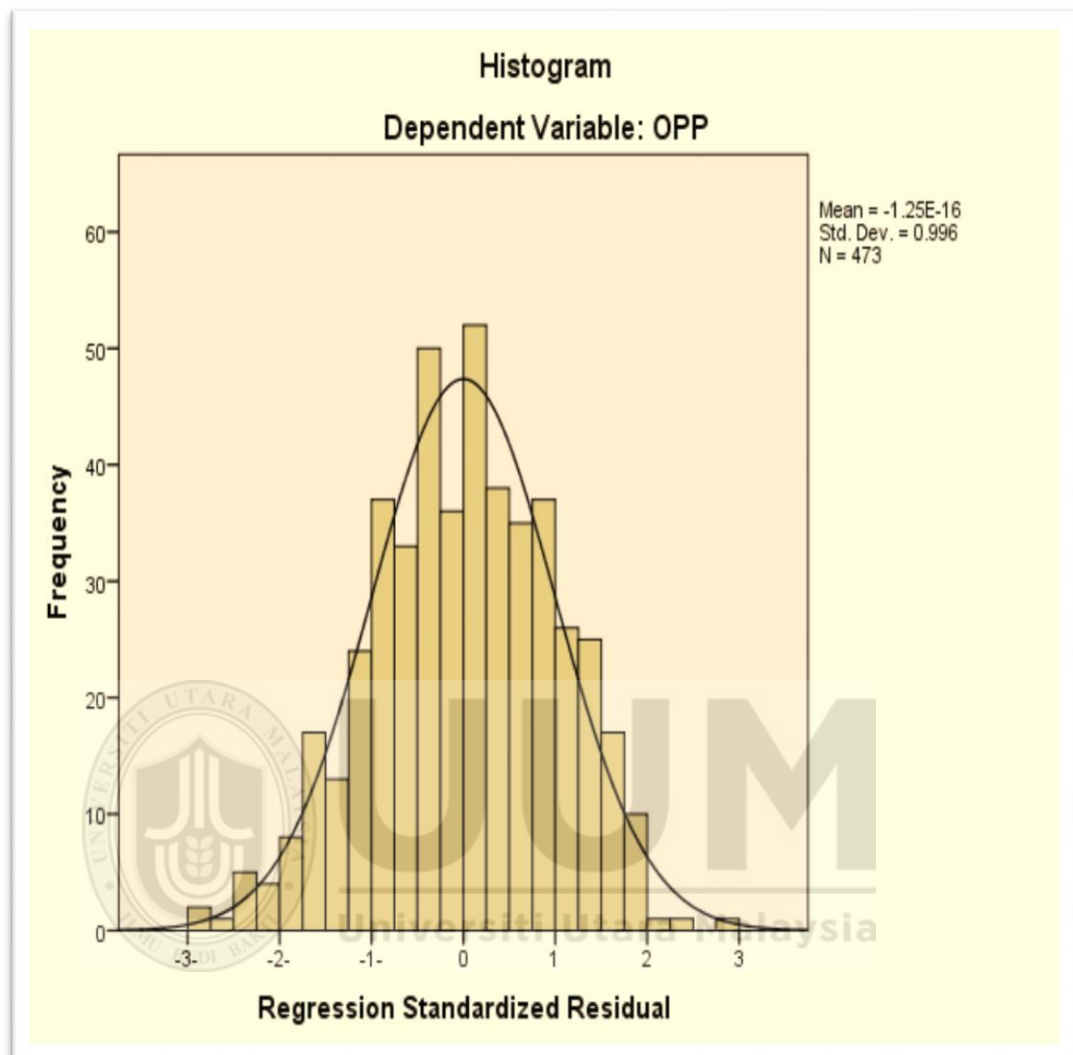


Figure 4.1 Histogram Normal Probability Plot

4.3.5 Multicollinearity Test

According to Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) Multicollinearity arises when two or more independent variables in a model are very highly correlated up to as high as 0.9 and above in the correlation matrix. Similarly, Hair et al. (2010) opined that multicollinearity simply occurs when the variable can be explained by other variables in the same regression model. This means that some variable contain redundant information since they are highly correlated with other variable, therefore, not all of

them are needed in the same analysis. While the test of multicollinearity may be overlooked in a study with a single independent variable, it is statistically incorrect to disregard it in a study with multiple independent variables (Field, 2009).

The presence of high level of multicollinearity between variables will ordinarily increase the size of the standard error and generate a threat to the model which can be problematic to multivariate analyses (Field, 2009) and consequently weakened the predictive power of the independent variables i.e. predictors to predict the effect on the dependent variable i.e. outcome. Therefore, in this study, two approaches were used to examine the presence of multicollinearity. Firstly, examination of the tolerance and the VIF values for all the exogenous variables. Secondly, an examination of the correlation matrix to identified variables that are highly correlated. The statistical ways of testing for multicollinearity through tolerance and Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) indicates that tolerance is the amount of variability of the selected independent variable that is not highly explained by the other independent variables (Hair et al., 2010). On the other hand, the Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) denotes the degree to which the standard error has been inflated by multicollinearity. Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) and tolerance level were tested through regression in the SPSS. The rule of thumb is that the tolerance and the VIF values should not be less than 0.10 and also should not exceed 10 respectively (Hair et al., 2010; Pallant, 2010). Table 4.6 revealed that the values of tolerance for this study ranges between 0.91 and 0.95 which is substantially less than 0.10. Likewise, VIF values ranges from

1.051 to 1.099 which is also within the acceptable range of less than 10 (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007).

Table 4.6
Result of Multicollinearity Test

Constructs	Tolerance	VIF
Facebook Usage	.952	1.051
Facebook Intensity	.915	1.093
Facebook Perception	.910	1.099
Political Interest	.951	1.051

The second examination of the correlation matrix revealed that none of the variables of the study are highly correlated. As shown in Table 4.7, the correlations between the variables in this study range from 0.097 – 0.311, which were below the suggested threshold values of .90, this suggests that the variables were independent and not highly correlated.

Table 4.7
Correlations of the Variables

FBU	FBI	FBP	OPP	PI	
FBU	1				
FBI	.193**	1			
FBP	.128**	.234**	1		
OPP	.150**	.149**	.311**	1	
PI	.097*	.117*	.200**	.152**	1

Note: ** Correlation is significant at 0.01 level (2-tailed), * Correlation is significant at 0.05 level (2-tailed).

4.3.6 Homoscedasticity Test

In addition to the importance of multicollinearity among variables, the test of Homoscedasticity is another source of concern to researchers in multivariate analysis. This refers to how the values of the data are spread out among the variables to be analysed. According to Hair et al. (2010) Homoscedasticity indicates that the amount of variance of the dependent variable explained is not concentrated in a limited range of the independent variables but rather relatively spread across them equally. Thus, when the dependent variable shows equal levels of variance across the range of independent variables, the multivariate normality assumption is met, and the relationships between variables are therefore homoscedastic (Field, 2009; Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007). Therefore, when the dependent variable shows unequal levels of variance across the range of independent variables, data would be said to be heteroscedastic (Hair et al., 2010). Homoscedasticity assessed can be graphically, as well as statistically (Field, 2009; Hair et al., 2010). The statistical test for homoscedasticity is done through independent sample t-test in the SPSS software package to assesses whether the variance of a single metric variable are equal across any number of groups of variables by looking at the values of levene statistic. Hair et al (2010) suggest that the result of the levene statistics of the t-test should be statistically insignificant to be free of heteroscedasticity.

This study therefore ran an independent sample t-test to test the assumption of homoscedasticity. Table 4.8 shows that the Levene statistics of each of the metric variables when computed against non-metric i.e. categorical variable from the

demographic data set are statistically insignificant thereby suggesting that the variance in the dependent variable is equally spread across the independent variables (Hair, 2010) except for online political participation and Facebook usage that are at the verge of significance $p= 0.05$ on the non-metric variable. However, the absence of multiple or consistent cases of heteroscedasticity in this data indicates that the data is acceptable for multivariate analysis.

Table 4.8
Test for Homoscedasticity

Metric variable	Gender	
	Levene Statistic	Sig.
Facebook Usage	3.752	.053
Facebook Intensity	1.029	.311
Facebook Perception	1.933	.165
Online Political Participation	5.337	.021
Political Interest	1.331	.249

In line with the suggestion of Hair et al. (2010) this study has achieved the assumptions of homoscedasticity.

4.3.7 Linearity Test

The relationship between variables is also important in data analysis. This is usually represented by a straight line known as linearity. Therefore, linearity refers to testing the association of variables to identify any departure that may affect the correlation between variables because correlations represent only the linear association between variable. (Hair et al, 2010). Thus, researchers measure linearity statistically by the Pearson Correlation or scatter plot (Field, 2009; Hair et al., 2010; Tabachnick &

Fidell, 2007). In this study, a linear regression analysis was conducted among the variables with online political participation being the dependent variable, the results showed the presence of linear relationship among the dependent and independent variables. Figure 4.2 displays the normal p plot of standardized regression residual.

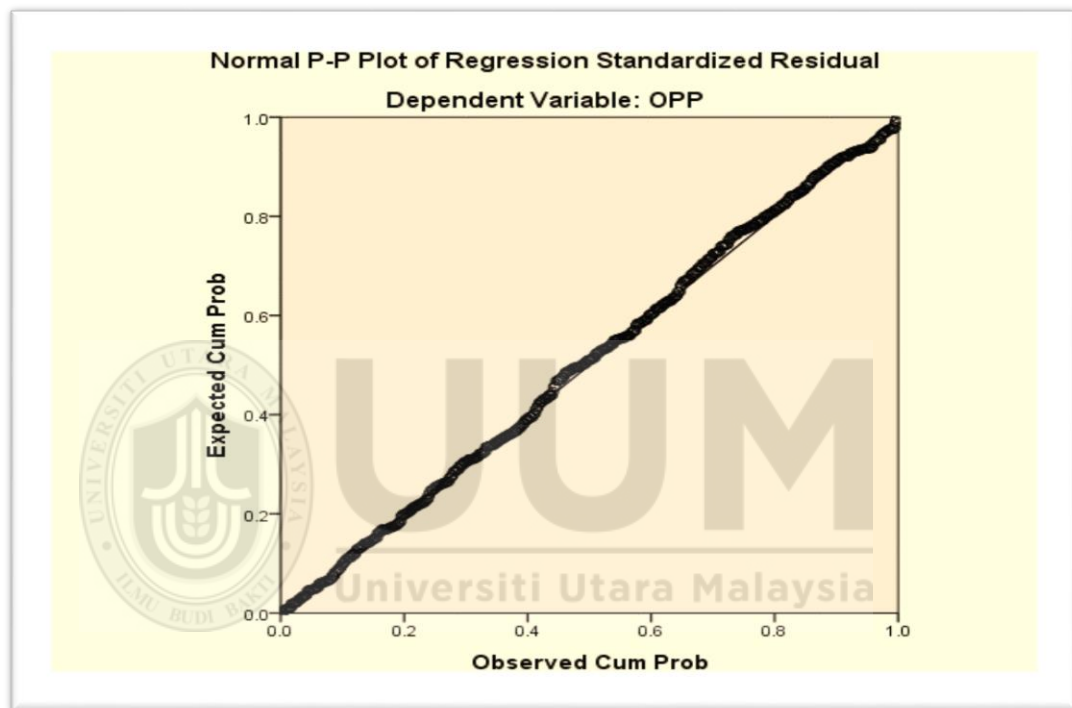


Figure 4.2 Linearity between Independent and Dependent Variable

4.3.8 Common Method Variance

Common method variance (CMV) refers to a systematic error variance observed among variables in which data was obtained through a single method and source (Richardson, Simmering, & Sturman, 2009). Basically, common method variance, otherwise known as common method bias, refers to that disparity that relates to the measurement procedure as against the actual variables the measures represent (Philip, Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). Hence, researchers have considered

CMV as major issue that need to be examined in communication and social science research (Lindell & Whitney, 2001; Podsakoff et al., 2003). Most of the empirical data for independent and dependent variables in survey research are obtained through a single survey (Lindell, & Whitney, 2001). Therefore, in most social science research (like this present study) both the data of independent and the dependent variables were mostly collected at the same time with the same instrument known as cross-sectional data, and this method could subject respondents to some form of partiality which could create a common method variance problems.

Actually, common method bias usually occurred because of factors that limit the competences of respondents and/or making the task of responding correctly more difficult (Viswanathan & Kayande, 2012). They noted that a number of factors can cause biased responding by reducing the respondent's ability to answer accurately such as complex or abstract questions, items ambiguity, double-barrelled questions, questions that rely on retrospective recall, lengthy scales, forced participation, repetitiveness of the items, lack of verbal ability or education (Viswanathan & Kayande, 2012).

The presence of CMV in a communication research usually threatens the validity of the conclusions about the relationships between measures and has a serious multiplying influence on empirical results, causing a potentially misleading conclusions (Podsakoff et al., 2003; Spector & Brannick, 2010). Consequently, MacKenzie and Podsakoff (2012), Podsakoff et al. (2003), Podsakoff, MacKenzie

and Podsakoff (2012), Viswanathan and Kayande (2012) have suggested for many practical solutions to reduce the effects of CMV. In this study these suggestions were adopted. Firstly, all the items in the questionnaire were well structured, simply worded and clearly stated. Secondly, all the questions were not double-barrelled and not repetitive. Thirdly, a five point Likert scale items were adopted to make the questionnaire easy for respondents. Fourthly, participation in the study is not compulsory and the respondents were assured of confidentiality of their response.

Furthermore, despite all the above mentioned practical solutions, this study also tested for CMV using the Harman's single factor test suggested by Podsakoff and Organ (1986) to detect the presence of CMV among the study variables. Under this method, principal component factor analysis is conducted on all the items (101 items) of the study variables using un-rotated factor to determine the number of factors that are essential to account for the variance in the variables (Podsakoff et al., 2003). The test was done with the assumption that if a significant amount of CMV exists, a single factor may account for most of the covariance in the predictor and criterion variables. According to Lowry and Gaskin (2014), Podsakoff et al. (2003) and Podsakoff and Organ (1986) researchers determine the presence of CMV when a single factor among the variables accounts for more than 50% of the variance. Thus, the result of the CVM analysis of this study extracted five different factors with a cumulative variance explained of 31.95%. Consequently, this result has revealed that no single factor accounted for the majority of covariance in the predictor and criterion variables.

Therefore, this study has no problem of common method bias and no relationships between variables measured could be inflated (Podsakoff et al., 2012).

4.3.8.1.1.1 Descriptive Statistics of Demographic Characteristics and Variables Relationships

This section drew some inferences from the demographic information provided by the respondents to shed more lights on the findings of this study. It begins with correlations between all variables. Next, is the descriptive statistics of respondent's profile, while, descriptive statistics of the study variables was also conducted in order to establish their distinctive contributions to the findings.

4.3.9 Descriptive Statistics of Respondent's Profile

In this study, description of the respondents' profile is done and displayed, and their diverse characteristics were asked in the demographic section of the questionnaire from which this data is now sourced for analysis. In describing the respondents' profile, the discussion will be separated into two separate sections. The first describes the demographic-related information and the second discusses the responses related to Facebook background- related information

4.3.9.1 Demographic-Related

The participant for this study were youth undergraduates. The undergraduate youth were particularly found to be the early adopters and heavy users of social media (Kushin & Yamamoto, 2010). As presented in table 4.8, the ages of respondents of

this study ranges from 15 years to 35 years, 83 respondents representing (17.5%) were between the ages of 15 years to 19 years, while 189 respondents representing (40.0%) were between the ages of 20 to 24, whereas, 129 respondents representing (29.4%) were between the ages of 25 to 29, while the respondents between the ages of 30 to 35 were 61 representing (13.1%). In terms of gender, the result indicates that there is relatively an even distribution of the respondents with 280 representing (59.2%) male as against 193 female representing (40.8%) of the whole respondents.

In terms of the distributions of respondents according to their faculty of study the result show that 109 respondents representing (23.0%) came from faculty of Arts, while 205 respondents signifying (43.3%) are from faculty of Science; 139 students representing (29.4%) are from faculty of Social & management Science. whereas 13 respondents representing (2.7%) came from faculty of Medicine & Pharmaceutical Science. The remaining seven respondents representing (1.5%) were from Faculty of Agriculture Environmental Science. The above analysis reveals that the study feature more male respondents than females. Most of the respondents are between 20 and 24 years. Majority of respondents came from faculty of Science and then faculty of Art as shown in Table 4.9 of the demographic profile of the respondents.

Table 4.9

Detail of Demographic Profile of Respondents (n=473)

Variable	Frequency	Percent
Age		
15-19 years	83	17.5
20-24 years	189	40.0
25-29 years	139	29.4
30-35 years	62	13.1
Total	473	100
Gender		
Male	280	59.2
Female	193	40.8
Total	473	100
Faculty of study		
Faculty of Arts	109	23.0
Faculty of Science	205	43.3
Faculty of Social & Management Science	139	29.4
Faculty of Medicine & Pharmaceutical Science	13	2.7
Faculty of Agriculture Environmental Science	07	1.5
Total	473	100

4.3.9.2 Facebook Background-Related Information

Youth are the respondents of this study, they are among the group of people that use Facebook most in the society (Al-Kandari & Hasanen, 2012; Checkoway, 2011; Dagona, Karick, & Abubakar, 2013). Therefore, table 4.9 show that they have indicated varying degrees of background information-related to Facebook. However, a large number of them, 139 representing (29.4%) confirm that they have 500 or more friends on Facebook, equally, another 139 respondents representing (29.4%) have between 100 Facebook to 300 hundred Facebook friend each. However, another 115 respondents signifying (24.4%), also have a lot of Facebook friends from 300 hundred up to 500 each. Whereas, those who indicated to have very little number of Facebook

friends were only 80 representing (16.9%). Therefore it can deduced from this result that majority of the respondents did not only have Facebook account, they also have a lot of Facebook friends, this show that they would receive a lot of political information from different Facebook friends which will enable them to participate in politics. Furthermore, in terms of the amount of hours the respondents spent in a week while browsing Facebook, the result indicated that 230 respondents (48.6%) spend not less than 11 hours to 14 per week browsing the Facebook.

Additionally, 79 respondents (16.7%) also spent 7 to 10 hours weekly on Facebook. Whereas, 78 respondents (16.5%) devote 3 hours to 6 hours per week in browsing Facebook. Similarly, 53 respondents (11.5%) expend more than 14 hours weekly on Facebook an average of two hours daily. In relation to the number of Facebook groups that the respondents belong to, the result show that the respondent belong to different Facebook groups, majority of them 219 respondents representing (46.35%) belong to 21 to 29 Facebook groups while 98 respondents (20.7%) belong to 11 to 20 groups. Equally, 92 respondents signifying (19.5%) belong to more than 30 different Facebook groups. The remaining 64 respondents with (13.5%) belong to less than 10 groups. The summary of the above analysis reveals that the study all the study respondents have Facebook account and most of them have more than five hundred friends, similarly, most of the respondents spend not less than 11 hours browsing Facebook in a week and majority of the respondents belong to more than 21 different Facebook groups as displayed in Table 4.1

Table 4.10
Facebook Background Information-Related

Variable	Frequency	Percent
Facebook Account		
Yes	473	100
No	-	-
Total	473	100
Number of friends on Facebook		
100 or Less	80	16.9
101- 300	139	29.4
301- 500	115	24.3
500 or more	139	29.4
Total	473	100
Time spent on Facebook per week		
Less than 3 hours per week	33	70.0
3-6 hours	78	16.5
7-10 hours	79	16.7
11-14 hours	230	48.6
More than 14 hours	53	11.2
Total	473	100
Number of Facebook Groups		
Less than 10 groups	64	13.5
11-20 groups	98	20.7
21-29 groups	219	46.3
30 and above	92	19.5
Total	473	100

4.3.10 Descriptive Statistics of Variables

The descriptive of the respondent's profile leads to the discussion on the descriptive statistics of the variables. In this section, the variables (i.e. online political participation, Facebook usage, Facebook intensity, Facebook perception and political interest) are explained, explored and described in detail according to the items that appeared in the questionnaire, the data were analysed using the descriptive statistics by specifically focusing on the mean and standard deviation. Since all instruments utilized a five point likert scale type of measurement, the researcher had considered

the suggestion made by Hodgson and Spours (2002) that the mean scores of all variables be divided into three levels—low (1.00 – 2.33), average (2.34 – 3.66) and high (3.67 – 5.00).

4.3.10.1 Online Political Participation

Based on the results of the analysis of each statement, it was revealed that the Online political participation fell within the range of average mean score level. The highest mean score for the item was for item 1 and 18 with the mean score of 3.54. The lowest mean score was 2.86 (item 27). The average mean score for all items was 3.20. Table 4.11 summarizes the results of the analysis.

Table 4.11
Mean and SD of Items in Online Political Participation Variable

Item	Online Political Participation	Mean	Std. Deviation	Level
1	Discussing political information on Facebook with my friends	3.54	1.05	Average
2	Sharing political information on Facebook	3.48	0.98	Average
3	Posting a photo about politics on Facebook	3.34	1.04	Average
4	Posting a video about politics on Facebook	3.20	1.08	Average
5	Positing a link about politics on Facebook	3.22	0.99	Average
6	Sharing a video about politics on Facebook	3.26	1.04	Average
7	Sharing a photo about politics on Facebook	3.34	1.03	Average
8	Sharing a political information link on Facebook	3.48	1.11	Average
9	Updating a page status with comment on political discussion on Facebook	3.42	1.11	Average
10	Reading topics related to politics in online newspapers on Facebook	3.51	1.15	Average
11	Watching political videos on Facebook	3.07	0.98	Average
12	Signing online political petition on Facebook	3.12	1.06	Average
13	Joining a political group on Facebook	3.12	1.08	Average
14	Participating in online political campaign on Facebook	3.08	1.06	Average
15	Liking a political candidates' page on Facebook	3.24	1.05	Average

16	Post comments in group discussion related to politics on Facebook	3.18	1.04	Average
17	Solicit for donation to political candidates	3.08	1.20	Average
18	Share political on Facebook	3.54	1.02	Average
19	Post a photo about politics on Facebook	3.53	1.01	Average
20	Post a video about politics on Facebook	3.28	1.05	Average
21	Share a photo about politics on Facebook	3.34	1.03	Average
22	Share a video about politics on Facebook	3.33	1.03	Average
23	Comment political discussion on Facebook	3.36	1.05	Average
24	Join an online political protest on Facebook	3.19	1.08	Average
25	Join a political group on Facebook	3.14	1.03	Average
26	Participate in political campaign on Facebook	3.16	1.05	Average
27	Post comments in group discussion related to politics on Facebook	2.86	1.03	Average
Overall average score for OPP		3.20	.831	Average

A frequency analysis was also conducted to identify the number of respondents that fell under each level of the Online Political Participation. As the results revealed, the respondents exhibit average level of online political participation with Mean between 2.86 and 3.54.

4.3.10.2 Facebook Usage

The Facebook Usage variable consisted of 20 items, 13 statements of the variable fell at the average level of the mean scores (3.29 – 3.66) while 7 statements fell at the high level of mean score (3.75-4.00). The highest Mean score was for item 5, with the mean score of 4.00. Meanwhile, the lowest mean score was for item 20, which was 3.29. The average mean score for all items was 3.57. This showed that the respondents agreed to the statements that described their motive for Facebook usage which include keeping up with current political issues and events and confirming political information. In the overall, the results indicated that the respondents have positive motive for Facebook usage. Table 4.12 describes the detail analysis

Table 4.12

Mean and SD of Items in Facebook Usage Variable

Item	Facebook Usage	Mean	Std. Deviation	Level
	My motive in Facebook usage is I want to			
1	... Update myself with political issues	3.86	0.96	High
2	...Get information about activities of government officials	3.80	1.01	High
3	...Confirm political information from different sources	3.75	1.02	High
4	...Learn about academic issues	3.83	1.03	High
5	...Be entertained	4.00	0.99	High
6	...Have some fun	3.92	0.99	High
7	...Be happy	3.81	0.94	High
8	...Just feel like browsing Facebook.	3.41	1.06	Average
9	...Find something interesting to talk to family and friends about	3.65	0.99	Average
10	...Find something interesting to use in starting a political conversation	3.49	1.05	Average
11	... Show my political views to other people	3.53	1.04	Average
12	...Influence others on what to do	3.53	0.99	Average
13	...See the way my friends present issues on Facebook	3.65	0.94	Average
14	...Get familiar with political discussion on Facebook	3.59	0.99	Average
15	...Compare my political ideas with what people write on Facebook	3.57	1.03	Average
16	...Learn about political issues affecting people like me	3.65	0.97	Average
17	...Pass time when I am bored	3.66	1.72	Average
18	...Relax	3.51	1.05	Average
19	...Forget about my problems	3.37	0.99	Average
20	...Be doing something when I have nothing better to do	3.29	0.96	Average
Overall average score for FBU		3.57	0.631	Average

A frequency analysis was also conducted to identify the number of respondents that fell under each level of the Facebook usage. As the results revealed, some of the respondents exhibit high level of agreement to the statements of online political

participation with (mean between 3.75 and 4.00), while some respondent exhibit average level of agreement to the statements of online political participation with Mean between 3.41 and 3.66

4.3.10.3 Facebook Intensity

The Facebook Intensity variable was made up of 29 items, 23 statements of the variable fell at the average level of the mean scores (3.06 – 3.65) while 7 statements fell at the high level of mean scores of (3.72-3.99). The highest mean score was for item 3, with the mean score of 3.99. Meanwhile, the lowest mean score was for item 29, which was 3.06. The average mean score for all items was 3.50. This showed that the respondents agreed to the statements that described their attachment and interaction with network of friends and emotional connection to Facebook which makes them to have a wide range of political information and viewpoint. In the overall, the results indicated that the respondents have positive attachment and interaction with network of friends on Facebook. Table 4.13 describes the detail analysis.

Table 4.13
Mean and SD of Items in Facebook Intensity Variable

Item	Facebook Intensity	Mean	Std. Deviation	Level
1	I use Facebook In connecting with friends I otherwise would have lost contact with.	3.95	0.97	High
2	In reconnecting with friends I have lost contact with.	3.96	0.92	High
3	In finding friends I haven't seen for a while.	3.99	0.85	High
4	To accept friends request	3.65	1.03	Average

5	In maintaining relationships with friends I may not get to see very often	3.85	0.91	High
6	In sending information to friends for events	3.59	0.98	Average
7	In joining groups for friendship	3.46	1.71	Average
8	In communicating with friends whom we share the same views	3.72	0.94	High
9	In finding friends online	3.50	1.00	Average
10	In contacting new people online	3.46	1.03	Average
11	In following activities of Facebook friends.	3.47	1.04	Average
12	In reading the profile pages of important people I want to meet.	3.24	1.12	Average
13	In checking the profile of new people for sending friend request	3.37	1.04	Average
14	Sometimes I find myself staying longer than necessary on Facebook.	3.79	1.00	High
15	Sometimes I listen to others complained to me about the amount of time I spend on Facebook	3.49	1.01	Average
16	Sometimes I feel excited when using Facebook than when spending time with my friends	3.28	1.07	Average
17	Sometimes my assignment suffers because of the amount of time I stay connected to Facebook	3.18	1.13	Average
18	Sometimes I check Facebook first, before Something else that I need to do	3.27	1.06	Average
19	Sometimes I complained when I am asked about what I do on Facebook.	3.25	1.04	Average
20	Sometimes I find good thinking whenever I am using Facebook	3.45	1.04	Average
21	Sometimes I find myself excited to be on Facebook again	3.46	0.95	Average
22	Sometimes I fear that life would be boring without the Facebook	3.26	1.05	Average
23	Sometimes I shout, if someone disturb me while I am on Facebook	3.22	1.06	Average
24	Sometimes I sleep late due to staying late-night on Facebook	3.28	1.02	Average
25	Sometimes I feel anxious with the thought of browsing Facebook when I am offline.	3.24	0.97	Average
26	Sometimes I give excuse to friends while I am on Facebook.	3.23	0.98	Average
27	Sometimes I fail in trying to cut down the amount of time I spend on Facebook.	3.15	0.96	Average

28	Sometimes I try to hide how long I have been on Face	3.07	1.00	Average
29	Sometimes I use Facebook to forget about other problems in my life.	3.06	0.98	Average
Overall average score for FBI		3.50	0.709	Average

A frequency analysis was also conducted to identify the number of respondents that fell under each level of the Facebook usage. As the results revealed only few of the respondents exhibit high level of agreement to the statements of online political participation with (mean between 3.72 and 3.99) while most of the respondent exhibit average level of agreement to the statements of online political participation with (mean between 3.06 and 3.65

4.3.10.4 Facebook Perception

The Facebook perception variable was made up of 17 items, 8 statements of the variable fell at the average level of the mean scores (3.21 – 3.63) while 9 statements fell at the high level of mean scores (3.67-3.97). The highest mean score was for item 15, with the mean score of 3.97. Meanwhile, the lowest mean score was for item d5, which was 3.21. The average mean score for all items was 3.49. This showed that the respondents agreed to the statements that described their perception of Facebook site in term of its features; accessibility; information sharing nature and maintenance of user's privacy. In the overall, the results indicated that the respondents have positive attachment and interaction with network of friends on Facebook. Table 4.14 describes the detail analysis.

Table 4.14
Mean and SD of Items in Facebook Perception Variable

Item	Facebook perception	Mean	Std. Deviation	Level
1	I feel secure while sharing information on Facebook	3.32	1.07	Average
2	I consider Facebook quite responsible about the information of what user's share	3.49	0.90	Average
3	I believe that Facebook has strong privacy system	3.31	1.05	Average
4	Facebook provides confidentiality regarding my personal information to others	3.37	1.06	Average
5	I feel comfortable to providing my personal information in Facebook	3.21	1.08	Average
6	I believe Facebook has varieties of features e.g sharing picture, for the user than other site	3.78	0.95	High
7	I believe I can easily upload a post on Facebook than other sites	3.77	0.97	High
8	I can easily share a post on Facebook page than other social media sites	3.85	0.93	High
9	I can easily like a post on Facebook page than other sites	3.89	0.96	High
10	I think Facebook has more attractive features than other sites	3.82	0.98	High
11	I consider sharing information on Facebook is part of my life	3.51	1.04	Average
12	I can share what I have in mind on Facebook	3.63	0.99	Average
13	I believe that sharing information on Facebook helps me in getting more friends	3.62	0.97	Average
14	I believe that Facebook is the place to share information with my friends	3.73	0.90	High
15	Facebook is easy to access	3.97	0.91	High
16	Ensuring fast accessibility of Facebook is important to me	3.76	0.88	High
17	Facebook is easily accessible than other social media sites	3.67	0.84	High
Overall average score for FBP		3.49	0.720	Average

A frequency analysis was also conducted to identify the number of respondents that fell under each level of the Facebook Perception. As the results revealed, most of the

respondents exhibit high level of agreement to the statements of online political participation with mean between 3.67 and 3.97, while some of the respondents' exhibit average level of agreement to the statements of online political participation with Mean between 3.21 and 3.63.

4.3.10.5 Political Interest

For Political Interest, eight items made up the variable. In the overall, all items yielded mean scores within the range of high level, with the highest score being 4.22 (item 6) and lowest score being 3.63 (item 1). This reveals that respondents are very much interested in politics. The average mean score for all items was 3.84. The Mean scores for each item are shown in Table 4.15.

Table 4.15
Mean and SD of Items in Political Interest Variable

Item	Political Interest	Mean	Std. Deviation	Level
1	Most of my friends on Facebook are interested in politics	3.63	0.92	Average
2	I have time to worry about politics	3.69	0.88	High
3	I often discuss politics with my friends on Facebook	3.74	0.87	High
4	Politics makes a lot difference to my friends on Facebook	3.88	0.80	High
5	Politics has an impact on anything I do	4.06	0.84	High
6	I am very interested in politics	4.22	0.80	High
7	I know about politics than most of my Facebook friends	3.97	0.84	High
8	Politics is easy for me to understand	4.04	0.72	High
Overall average score for PI		3.84	0.637	High

A frequency analysis was also conducted to identify the number of respondents that fell under each level of the Facebook Perception. As the results revealed, most of the

respondents exhibit high level of agreement to the statements of online political participation with Mean between 3.29 and 3.86.

4.4 Analysis of Gender Differences in the Main Study Constructs

The chapter continues by analysing result of the tested hypotheses which determine to identify the differences in the categorical data of gender between male and female in online political participation, Facebook usage, Facebook intensity and Facebook perception

The first of the hypothesis that tested differences is Hypothesis H1a which stated that: There is a significant difference between male and female in online political participation. This hypothesis aimed at looking at the pattern of online political participation between groups male and female. Previous studies seemed to show a difference among male and female in online political participation. Thus, a t-test was conducted to test this hypothesis 1a. The results was interpreted based on three assumptions: (1) the variable (online political participation) was normally distributed; (2) the two groups (male and female) had approximately equal variance on the variable; and (3) the two groups were independent of one another.

Therefore, the mean value for male group was higher to the mean of female group which was, 3.32 (SD=.763) and 3.02 (SD=.895). Thus, the results revealed that there was a significant difference in online political participation between the two groups of male and female. Table 4.16 displays the results of the t-test

Table 4.16

Result of t-test of Difference between Male and Female in Online Political Participation

Variable	Group	N	Mean	t	SD	Sig
Online political participation	Male	380	3.32	3.82	0.763	.000
	Female	193	3.02		0.895	

Another test is of hypothesis 1g: which stated that there is a significant difference between male and female in Facebook usage. This hypothesis aimed at looking at the pattern of Facebook usage between two groups of —male and female. Previous studies seemed to show a difference among male and female in Facebook usage. Thus, a t-test was conducted to test hypothesis 1g. The results was interpreted based on three assumptions: (1) the variable (Facebook usage) was normally distributed; (2) the two groups (male and female) had approximately equal variance on the variable; and (3) the two groups were independent of one another. Thus, the mean for male group was slightly higher than female group which was, 3.66 (SD=.467) and 3.58 (SD=.469). Therefore, the results revealed that there is no significant difference in Facebook usage of the two groups of male and female. Clearly, the results of the analysis support the findings by Cicognani et al., (2012), which found that there was no difference in Facebook usage between male and female. Table 4.17 displays the results of the t-test.

Table 4.17

Result of t-test of Differences between Male and Female in Facebook Usage

Variable	Group	N	Mean	t	SD	Sig
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Facebook usage	Male	380	3.66	1.89	0.467	.059
	Female	193	3.58		0.469	

Also, Hypothesis 2b stated as thus: There is a significant difference between male and female in Facebook intensity. This hypothesis aimed at looking at the pattern of Facebook intensity between groups of male and female. Thus, a t-test was conducted to test hypothesis H2b. The results were interpreted based on three assumptions: (1) the variable of Facebook intensity was normally distributed; (2) the two groups (male and female) had approximately equal variance on the variable; and (3) the two groups were independent of one another. The mean for male group was equal to the mean of female group which was, 3.43 (SD=.476) and 3.43 (SD=.494). However, the results revealed that there was no significant difference in the Facebook intensity between the two groups of male and female. Clearly, the results of the analysis did not support the findings by Mendez and Osborn (2010), which found that there was differences between male and female in Facebook intensity. Table 4.18 displays the results of the t-test.

Table 4.18

Result of t-test of Difference between Male and Female in Facebook Intensity

Variable	Group	N	Mean	t	SD	Sig
Facebook intensity	Male	380	3.43	1.89	0.476	.912
	Female	193	3.43		0.494	

Furthermore, Hypothesis 3b stated that: There is a significant difference between male and female in Facebook perception. This hypothesis aimed at looking at the pattern of Facebook perception between two groups of —male and female. Previous studies seemed to show a difference among male and female in Facebook usage. Thus, a t-test was conducted to test hypothesis 3b. The results were interpreted based on three assumptions: (1) the variable (Facebook perception) was normally distributed; (2) the two groups (male and female) had approximately equal variance on the variable; and (3) the two groups were independent of one another. Thus, the mean value for male group was almost equal to the mean of female group which was, 3.65 (SD=.519) and 3.57 (SD=.518). However, the results revealed that there was no significant difference in the Facebook perception between the two groups of male and female. This suggested that further analysis on the Facebook perception could not be performed. Table 4.19 displays the results of the t-test.

Table 4.19

Result of t-test of Difference between Male and Female in Facebook Perception

Variable	Group	N	Mean	t	SD	Sig
Facebook perception	Male	380	3.65	1.89	0.519	.087
	Female	193	3.57		0.518	

Similarly, tables of the descriptive statistic of the latent constructs (appendix F).

4.5 Evaluation of PLS Path Model Result

Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) which is a 2nd generation multivariate technique was chosen in this study over the multiple regression, which is a 1st

generation multivariate technique, because, with multiple regression simultaneous evaluation of model construct relationships is not possible; evaluation has to be performed in sequential steps, whereas, SEM allows for simultaneous evaluation of all the variables in the model instead of separately (Fornell, 1984; Chin, 1998). Additionally, regression deals with observed variables only, but SEM deals with both latent construct and observed variables. More so, SEM allows researcher to develop a complex path models which consist of direct and indirect effects

The evaluation and reporting of research result in PLS-SEM path model involved two process the assessment of measurement model and the assessment of a structural model (Hair et al., 2014; Hensler, Ringle, & Sinkovic, 2009). The measurement model shows how measured indicators or variables join together to represent their unique constructs while the structural model shows the interrelationship between the constructs (Hair et al., 2010). Similarly, Byrne (2016) outlined three strength of PLS-SEM over other method of multivariate analyses, they include (i) ability of SEM to concurrently estimate two structures: the structural model and the measurement model in one structure; (ii) its ability to evaluate and estimate measurement errors in the descriptive variables which can lead to untold inaccuracies and lastly, (iii) the application of SEM combines both observed and unobserved (latent) variables as against other method of multivariate analyses which are based on observed variables only. Additionally, in line with the observation of Shook, Ketchen, Hult, & Kacmar (2004) that in a non-experimental research, the application of SEM is useful when a study contains a strong theoretical foundation that are critical to causality inferences. Therefore, the use of SEM is relevant to this study.

4.5.1 Assessment of Measurement Model

The measurement model examines how the observed variables converge together to represent the constructs they measure (Hair et al., 2010). To assess a measurement model the following activities were undertaken: examining internal consistency reliability, ascertaining indicator reliability, and determining convergent and discriminant validity (Hair et al., 2010). These activities were undertaken in order to identify the relationship between observed variables and underlying latent variables. However, the variable of Facebook usage is considered as first order construct, the indicators of the construct were not found to be used as second order construct by previous researches (Claffey & Brady, 2017; Hashim et al., 2015; Mondy et al., 2008; Rauschnabel, 2018; Nyland, 2007; Ko et al., 2005; Kaye & Johnson, 2005; Guo, Tan, & Cheung, 2010).

According to Hair et al (2014) first order constructs are those constructs which are measured directly by observed indicators. Therefore, the construct of Facebook usage in this study was measured in all stages of the measurement model using the reflective items of the construct, thereby making the Facebook usage construct a first order reflective construct in the study (Hair et al. 2014). Several studies were conducted by combining first order constructs and second order constructs in a single study (Leone, Desimoni, & Chrumbolo, 2014; Rasoolimanesh, Dahalan, & Jaafar, 2016; Kashif, Zarkada, & Ramayah, 2018; Rauschnabel, 2018; Rezaei et al., 2018).

On the other hand, the remaining variables in this study, Facebook perception, Facebook intensity, and online political participation were measured at higher level of abstraction, thus, forming Hierarchical Construct Model (HCMs) or Hierarchical Order Model (HOMs). Hierarchical constructs are multidimensional construct or constructs involving more than one dimension which entails second-order testing that contain two layer of construct (Lohmoller, 1989), this indicates that the items of the dimensions of the Facebook intensity, Facebook perception and online political participation construct were measured as first-order constructs. While the dimensions of the constructs themselves were reflectively measured again as items of a construct in the second order. thus, they that can be distinguished from each other but are correlated (Becker, Klein, & Wetzels, 2012; Rauschnabel, 2018; Rezaei, Emami, & Ismail, 2018), thereby forming the hierarchical construct model (Chin et al., 2003) or recurrent indicators method (Lohmoller, 1988).

The Hierarchical Construct Model method was adopted for the construct of Facebook Intensity, Facebook Perception, and online Political Participation in this study, in order to reduce the complex nature of the research model and also to gain more theoretical parsimony (Lohmoller, 1989). Additionally, Hair, et al; (2014) stated that among the reasons for the use of Hierarchical Construct Model; first is to make the model easier to grasp by reducing the number of relationships in the structural model, second is to avoid collinearity issues which mostly affect the discriminant validity of some items in a study. These reasons were also considered for this study because the

number of items for some constructs in this study Facebook intensity and online political participation were particularly large.

Accordingly, the Hierarchical Construct Model of this study contains higher order construct (HOC), which is the main construct and a lower order construct (LOC) which is the sub dimensions of the main construct (Wetzels, Odekerken-Schröder, & van Oppen, 2009). Therefore, in this study, higher order construct which is known as (repeated indicator approach) was done where all the indicators that form the lower order constructs of Facebook intensity, Facebook perception and online Political participation, were also assigned to the Hierarchical Construct Model. This means that a second-order factor was directly measured by the observed variable of all the first order- factor. Hence a stronger relationship emerges between higher order construct and lower order construct because they share a large number of indicators in the HCM. Besides, Lohmoller (1989), Hair, et al; (2014) and Wetzels et al (2009) all noted it as a popular method to estimate HOC with PLS-SEM.

4.5.1.1 Assessment of First Stage Hierarchical Construct Model

The first stage hierarchical construct model in this study entails the assessment of the model through examining internal consistency reliability, ascertaining indicator reliability, and determining convergent and discriminant validity The Cronbach's alpha coefficient and composite reliability coefficient were used to measure the internal consistency reliability for this study. Using composite reliability coefficient to interpret internal consistency it should be at least 0.70 (Hair et al, 2010).

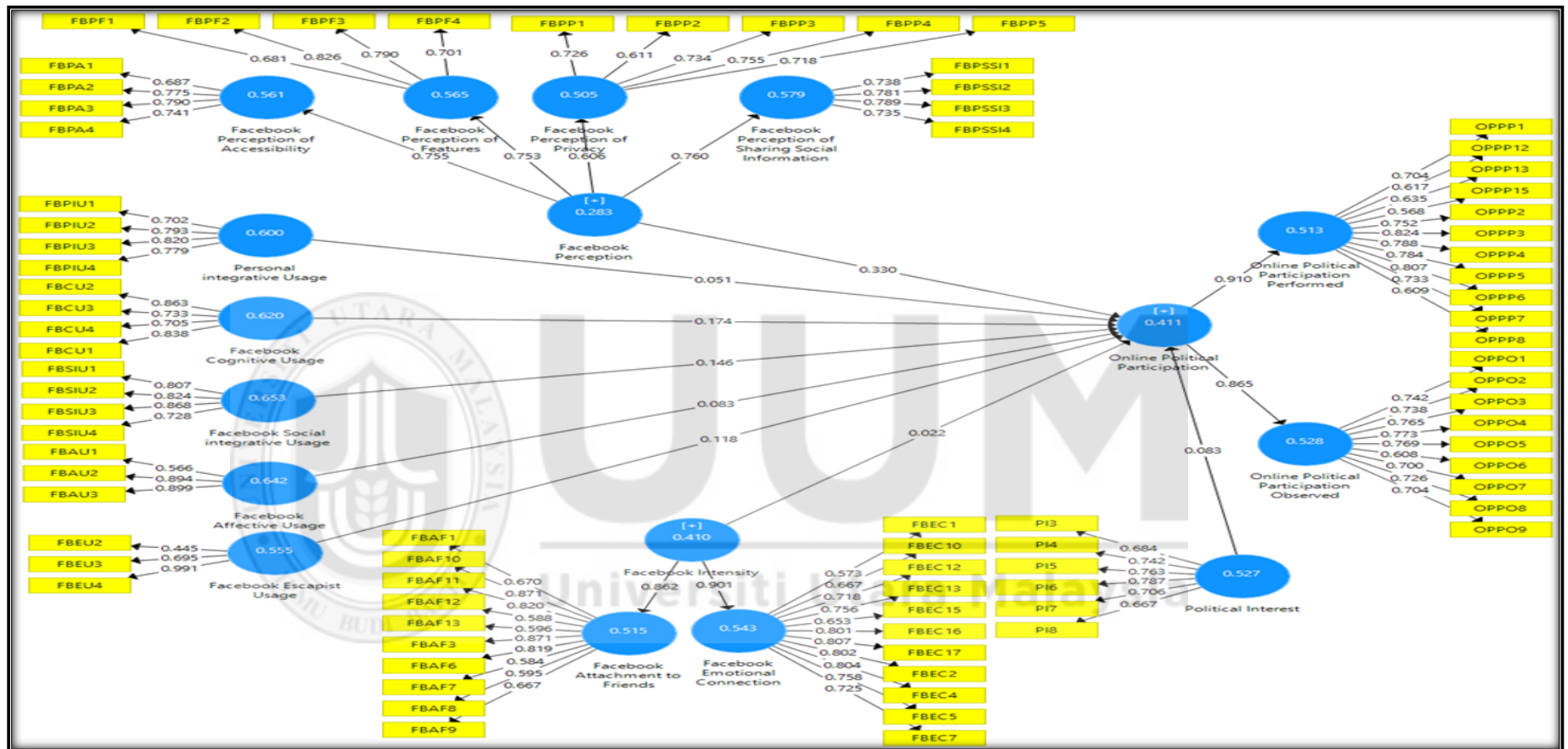


Figure 4.3 First Stage Hierarchical Construct Measurement Model

4.5.1.1.1 Internal Consistency Reliability

The internal consistency reliability of this study was measured by using Cronbach Alpha coefficient and composite reliability. The interpretation of internal consistency reliability was based on the rule of thumb that composite reliability coefficient should be at least 0.70 (Hair et al. 2010). Hence, in this study, the Cronbach Alpha values are between 0.738 to 0.914, while the values of composite reliability are between 0.773 and 0.928. Hence, internal consistency reliability is adequately achieved. As a result, this study has no issue about internal consistency reliability, as illustrated in Table 4.20

4.5.1.1.2 Indicator Reliability

The Indicator Reliability was examined by assessing the outer loading of each construct measure (Hair et al, 2010). In order to ensure unidimensionality of a measurement model, items should have an outer loading of 0.50 and above (Hair et al, 2000). Therefore, the threshold of 0.40 was taken as the minimum outer load for the first stage Hierarchical Construct Model of this study. This is because the study has already achieved the recommended value of 0.70 and 0.50 for CR and AVE of the overall measurement model value respectively. Hence, 19 items which had a loading below 0.40 were deleted to improve the average variance extracted (AVE) of the model. Consequently, 82 items (indicators) were retained in the model. As can be seen most of the items have relatively good loading as illustrated in figure 4.3

4.5.1.1.3 Convergent Validity

Convergent Validity is the extent to which items truly represent the intended latent construct and correlate with other measures of the same latent construct (Hair et al.,

2013). The convergent validity of this study was examined by the AVE of each latent construct. As suggested by Chin (1998) the AVE of each latent construct should be at least 0.50, The AVE for this study were all above 0.50, this suggest that the study has adequate convergent validity. This is shown in Table 4.20

Table 4.20
Results of the Assessment of Measurement Model for First Stage Hierarchical Construct Model (Loadings, Average Variance Extracted and Reliabilities)

Constructs	Items	Loadings	Cronbach's Alpha	Composite Reliability	Average Variance Extracted (AVE)
Facebook Usage	FBCU1	0.838	0.797	0.866	0.620
	FBCU2	0.863			
	FBCU3	0.733			
	FBCU4	0.705			
	FBSIU1	0.807	0.826	0.882	0.653
	FBSIU2	0.824			
	FBSIU3	0.868			
	FBSIU4	0.728			
	FBPIU1	0.702	0.781	0.857	0.600
	FBPIU2	0.793			
	FBPIU3	0.820			
	FBPIU4	0.779			
	FBAU1	0.566	0.806	0.838	0.642
	FBAU2	0.894			
	FBAU3	0.899			
	FBEU2	0.445			
Facebook Intensity	FBEU3	0.695	0.757	0.773	0.555
	FBEU4	0.991			
	FBAF1	0.670			
	FBAF3	0.871			
	FBAF6	0.819	0.893	0.912	0.515
	FBAF7	0.584			
	FBAF8	0.595			

Facebook Perception	FBAF9	0.667			
	FBAF10	0.871			
	FBAF11	0.820			
	FBAF12	0.588			
	FBAF13	0.596			
	FBEC1	0.573	0.914	0.928	0.543
	FBEC2	0.802			
	FBEC4	0.804			
	FBEC5	0.758			
	FBEC7	0.725			
	FBEC10	0.667			
	FBEC12	0.718			
	FBEC13	0.756			
	FBEC15	0.653			
	FBEC16	0.801			
	FBEC17	0.807			
	FBPA1	0.687	0.738	0.836	0.561
	FBPA2	0.775			
	FBPA3	0.790			
	FBPA4	0.741			
	FBPF1	0.681	0.741	0.838	0.565
	FBPF2	0.826			
	FBPF3	0.790			
	FBPF4	0.701			
	FBPP1	0.726	0.754	0.835	0.505
	FBPP2	0.611			
	FBPP3	0.734			
	FBPP4	0.755			
	FBPP5	0.718			
	FBPSSI1	0.738	0.758	0.846	0.579
	FBPSSI2	0.781			
	FBPSSI3	0.789			
	FBPSSI4	0.735			

Online political participation	OPPO1	0.742	0.887	0.909	0.528
	OPPO2	0.738			
	OPPO3	0.765			
	OPPO4	0.773			
	OPPO5	0.769			
	OPPO6	0.608			
	OPPO7	0.700			
	OPPO8	0.726			
	OPPO9	0.704			
	OPPP1	0.704	0.902	0.919	0.513
	OPPP12	0.617			
	OPPP13	0.635			
	OPPP15	0.568			
	OPPP2	0.752			
	OPPP3	0.824			
	OPPP4	0.788			
	OPPP5	0.784			
	OPPP6	0.807			
	OPPP7	0.733			
	OPPP8	0.609			
Political Interest	PI3	0.684	0.824	0.870	0.527
	PI4	0.742			
	PI5	0.763			
	PI6	0.787			
	PI7	0.706			
	PI8	0.667			

Note: Facebook Cognitive Usage(FBCU) Facebook Affective Usage(FBAU)Facebook Social Interactive Usage (FBSIU) Facebook Personal Interactive Usage (FBPIU) Facebook Escapist Usage(FBEU) Facebook Attachment to Friends (FBAF) Facebook Emotional Connection (FBEC) Facebook perception of Privacy (FBPP) Facebook perception of Features (FBPF) Facebook perception of Sharing Social Information (FBPSSI) Facebook perception of Accessibility (FBPA) Political Interest (PI) Online Political Participation Performed (OPPP) Online Political Participation Observed (OPPO)

4.5.1.1.4 Discriminant Validity

The Discriminant validity of this study was examined by the AVE similar to convergent validity. Fornell and Larcker (1981) suggested that discriminant validity should be assessed by the use of the AVE with value score of 0.50 and above. Similarly, the square root of the AVE should be greater than the correlations among latent variables. Therefore, as can be seen in Table 4.20 the value of AVE for this study is between 0.505 and 0.653 this indicate an acceptable values. In table 4.21 the correlation among the latent variable are compared with the square root of the AVE (in bold font). The square root of AVE are all greater than the correlations among latent variables, indicating significant discriminant validity (Fornell & Larcker, 1981).



Table 4.21

Discriminant Validity Assessment for First Stage Hierarchical Construct Model (Fornell and Larcker 1981 Criterion)

Constructs	FBSIU	FBAU	FBCU	FBEU	FBPA	FBPF	FBPP	FBPSSI	FBAF	OPPO	OPPP	FBIU	PI
FBSIU	0.808												
FBAU	-0.158	0.802											
FBCU	0.302	-0.18	0.788										
FBEC	-0.051	-0.044	0.088										
FBEU	-0.209	0.153	-0.031	0.745									
FBPA	0.083	-0.035	0.126	0.011	0.749								
FBPF	0.066	-0.060	0.119	-0.028	0.456	0.752							
FBPP	0.117	0.007	0.095	0.053	0.240	0.287	0.711						
FBPSSI	0.058	-0.054	0.205	0.049	0.457	0.415	0.275	0.761					
FBAF	-0.086	0.014	0.067	0.023	0.016	0.044	-0.019	0.025	0.718				
OPPO	0.157	-0.001	0.258	0.083	0.235	0.192	0.316	0.260	0.043	0.727			
OPPP	0.220	0.036	0.245	0.089	0.247	0.158	0.390	0.281	0.033	0.579	0.716		
FBIU	0.421	-0.168	0.334	-0.196	0.152	0.112	0.159	0.129	-0.027	0.165	0.180	0.775	
PI	-0.013	0.002	0.015	0.029	0.190	0.106	0.149	0.138	0.286	0.086	0.181	-0.001	0.726

Note: the in bold font are the square root of AVE across diagonal while off diagonal values are the correlation between first stage construct

In addition to Fornell and Larcker (1981) criterion, The Hetrotrait-Monotrait Ratio (HTMT) was examined as this criterion is regarded to be a more reliable criterion for evaluating discriminant validity than the Fornell–Larcker criterion (Ab Hamid, Sami, & Mohmad Sidek, 2017; Henseler, Ringle, & Sarstedt, 2014; Voorhees, Brady, Calantone, & Ramirez, 2016). The HTMT result in this study shows that discriminant is within the conventional yardstick of 0.85 (Henseler et al., 2014) as shown in Tables 4.22 Therefore, discriminant validity is achieved.



Table 4.22
Discriminant Validity Assessment for First Stage Hierarchical Constructs Model (HTMT)

Constructs	FBSIU	FBAU	FBCU	FBEC	FBEU	FBPA	FBPF	FBPP	FBPSSI	FBAF	OPPO	OPPP	FBIU	PI
FBSIU														
FBAU	0.237													
FBCU	0.348	0.315												
FBEC	0.071	0.061	0.115											
FBEU	0.258	0.330	0.185	0.056										
FBPA	0.113	0.102	0.163	0.099	0.088									
FBPF	0.096	0.101	0.156	0.108	0.069	0.617								
FBPP	0.145	0.058	0.124	0.132	0.067	0.318	0.385							
FBPSSI	0.094	0.082	0.259	0.117	0.094	0.608	0.554	0.358						
FBAF	0.120	0.047	0.082	0.568	0.051	0.080	0.073	0.095	0.098					
OPPO	0.166	0.046	0.297	0.081	0.103	0.287	0.236	0.385	0.317	0.083				
OPPP	0.251	0.059	0.278	0.081	0.092	0.303	0.198	0.473	0.342	0.083	0.651			
FBIU	0.513	0.251	0.400	0.083	0.296	0.205	0.146	0.204	0.170	0.063	0.196	0.210		
PI	0.063	0.035	0.066	0.205	0.084	0.241	0.132	0.195	0.170	0.368	0.108	0.206	0.080	

Another examination of discriminant validity is through the recommendation of Chin and Newsted (1998) which was done by comparing the indicator loading with cross-loading of other reflective indicators, as a result, all indicators that can be seen in table 4.23 are higher than the cross-loadings. This also indicate adequate discriminant validity in this study.



Table 4.23
Discriminant Validity Assessment for First Stage Hierarchical Constructs Model (Loadings and Cross Loadings)

Constructs	Items	FBAU	FBAF	FBCU	FBEC	FBEU	FBPA	FBPF	FBPP	FBPSSI	FBSIU	OPPO	OPPP	FBPIU	PI
FBAU	FBAU1	0.566	-0.039	-0.257	-0.026	0.174	-0.068	-0.066	0.012	-0.058	-0.183	-0.025	0.016	-0.185	0.003
	FBAU2	0.894	0.029	-0.192	-0.022	0.120	-0.039	-0.093	0.001	-0.059	-0.131	-0.006	0.034	-0.154	0.001
	FBAU3	0.899	-0.012	-0.155	-0.057	0.169	-0.032	-0.021	0.013	-0.043	-0.168	0.000	0.029	-0.162	0.003
FBAF	FBAF1	0.032	0.670	0.054	0.346	-0.003	0.041	0.043	0.051	0.010	-0.022	0.056	0.032	-0.050	0.169
	FBAF10	0.010	0.871	0.097	0.507	0.015	0.013	0.032	0.000	0.065	-0.057	0.074	0.077	0.032	0.301
	FBAF11	0.023	0.820	0.042	0.516	0.041	-0.043	0.029	-0.105	-0.034	-0.080	0.006	-0.035	-0.037	0.085
	FBAF12	-0.028	0.588	-0.013	0.240	-0.018	0.053	0.059	-0.033	0.002	-0.077	-0.022	0.023	-0.037	0.168
	FBAF13	-0.017	0.596	0.019	0.181	0.032	0.018	-0.008	0.052	0.052	-0.097	0.021	0.027	-0.027	0.393
	FBAF3	0.011	0.871	0.100	0.513	0.013	0.018	0.038	0.007	0.072	-0.055	0.083	0.081	0.025	0.300
	FBAF6	0.025	0.819	0.042	0.514	0.043	-0.045	0.028	-0.103	-0.034	-0.078	0.004	-0.036	-0.029	0.085
	FBAF7	-0.020	0.584	-0.007	0.235	-0.018	0.058	0.058	-0.031	-0.002	-0.067	-0.014	0.019	-0.031	0.168
	FBAF8	-0.013	0.595	0.023	0.182	0.037	0.030	0.003	0.059	0.062	-0.096	0.021	0.035	-0.022	0.390
	FBAF9	0.040	0.667	0.067	0.345	0.003	0.043	0.038	0.050	0.010	-0.022	0.047	0.027	-0.054	0.159
FBCU	FBCU1	-0.050	0.074	0.838	0.063	0.043	0.083	0.108	0.091	0.177	0.237	0.225	0.230	0.296	-0.003
	FBCU2	-0.121	0.053	0.863	0.086	-0.010	0.105	0.073	0.088	0.161	0.296	0.241	0.224	0.304	0.005
	FBCU3	-0.179	0.022	0.733	0.084	-0.078	0.062	0.069	0.028	0.100	0.193	0.135	0.136	0.243	0.010
	FBCU4	-0.271	0.050	0.705	0.048	-0.093	0.146	0.129	0.076	0.197	0.209	0.186	0.158	0.193	0.044
FBEC	FBEC1	0.012	0.443	0.081	0.573	-0.003	-0.064	-0.018	-0.030	-0.069	-0.010	0.038	-0.022	-0.019	-0.024
	FBEC10	-0.039	0.347	0.112	0.667	-0.009	-0.013	0.136	0.036	0.063	-0.026	0.104	0.048	0.045	-0.030
	FBEC12	0.013	0.292	0.018	0.718	-0.007	-0.018	0.071	-0.067	-0.022	-0.070	-0.006	-0.027	-0.081	-0.151

Table 4.23 Continued

	FBEC13	-0.015	0.298	-0.016	0.756	-0.009	-0.083	-0.011	-0.094	-0.098	-0.055	-0.043	-0.071	-0.060	-0.165
	FBEC15	-0.048	0.345	0.080	0.653	-0.014	-0.004	0.150	0.045	0.074	-0.040	0.110	0.042	0.048	-0.028
	FBEC16	-0.088	0.476	0.111	0.801	-0.048	-0.057	0.061	-0.057	0.013	-0.024	0.041	0.008	0.007	-0.009
	FBEC17	-0.039	0.523	0.094	0.807	-0.015	-0.071	-0.014	-0.101	-0.067	-0.028	-0.003	-0.021	-0.017	-0.203
	FBEC2	-0.035	0.522	0.086	0.802	-0.011	-0.072	-0.020	-0.100	-0.071	-0.026	0.001	-0.017	-0.020	-0.202
	FBEC4	-0.090	0.483	0.105	0.804	-0.046	-0.054	0.056	-0.068	0.017	-0.030	0.039	0.004	0.001	-0.014
	FBEC5	-0.014	0.301	-0.011	0.758	-0.010	-0.082	-0.010	-0.103	-0.102	-0.048	-0.041	-0.073	-0.052	-0.163
	FBEC7	0.011	0.301	0.025	0.725	-0.011	-0.020	0.071	-0.077	-0.019	-0.071	0.004	-0.028	-0.084	-0.149
FBEU	FBEU2	0.227	-0.046	-0.159	-0.062	0.445	-0.044	-0.016	0.022	0.029	-0.133	-0.026	0.016	-0.172	0.055
	FBEU3	0.191	0.030	-0.107	0.004	0.695	-0.060	-0.038	-0.004	-0.051	-0.151	0.010	0.025	-0.203	0.049
	FBEU4	0.139	0.018	-0.018	-0.029	0.991	0.023	-0.024	0.060	0.066	-0.208	0.090	0.094	-0.183	0.024
FBPA	FBPA1	0.026	-0.020	0.070	-0.091	0.011	0.687	0.346	0.180	0.433	0.055	0.181	0.218	0.084	0.106
	FBPA2	0.012	-0.017	0.067	-0.089	0.037	0.775	0.329	0.125	0.292	0.056	0.146	0.129	0.125	0.114
	FBPA3	-0.068	0.062	0.103	-0.021	0.010	0.790	0.329	0.203	0.312	0.066	0.199	0.212	0.099	0.181
	FBPA4	-0.074	0.021	0.135	-0.006	-0.024	0.741	0.357	0.206	0.325	0.070	0.173	0.177	0.147	0.166
FBPF	FBPF1	0.013	-0.002	0.033	0.060	0.032	0.325	0.681	0.279	0.230	0.012	0.160	0.153	0.036	0.033
	FBPF2	-0.015	0.011	0.109	0.012	-0.035	0.383	0.826	0.254	0.307	0.043	0.185	0.119	0.123	0.084
	FBPF3	-0.113	0.067	0.103	0.072	-0.036	0.323	0.790	0.186	0.363	0.108	0.098	0.114	0.124	0.107
	FBPF4	-0.066	0.056	0.109	0.019	-0.041	0.338	0.701	0.145	0.347	0.031	0.134	0.090	0.043	0.092
FBPP	FBPP1	0.027	-0.013	0.078	-0.053	0.036	0.178	0.205	0.726	0.265	0.134	0.256	0.309	0.128	0.078
	FBPP2	-0.049	0.017	0.103	0.028	0.010	0.145	0.169	0.611	0.134	0.105	0.207	0.224	0.156	0.032

FBPSSI	FBPP4	0.021	0.005	0.074	-0.058	0.087	0.192	0.210	0.755	0.172	0.043	0.224	0.275	0.095	0.164
	FBPP5	-0.016	-0.051	0.083	-0.100	0.049	0.209	0.223	0.718	0.212	0.109	0.217	0.315	0.120	0.117
	FBPSSI1	-0.021	0.024	0.145	0.021	0.056	0.301	0.418	0.196	0.738	-0.014	0.149	0.144	0.053	0.133
	FBPSSI2	-0.049	0.090	0.167	0.033	0.003	0.264	0.305	0.230	0.781	0.082	0.255	0.279	0.093	0.165
FBSIU	FBPSSI3	-0.027	0.002	0.182	-0.066	0.018	0.393	0.290	0.241	0.789	0.052	0.190	0.221	0.113	0.078
	FBPSSI4	-0.070	-0.039	0.128	-0.097	0.074	0.431	0.249	0.168	0.735	0.057	0.201	0.212	0.133	0.046
	FBSIU1	-0.146	-0.071	0.221	-0.024	-0.162	0.080	0.089	0.084	0.050	0.807	0.081	0.166	0.293	-0.028
	FBSIU2	-0.106	-0.018	0.259	-0.006	-0.177	0.050	0.078	0.092	0.055	0.824	0.111	0.170	0.347	0.057
OPPO	FBSIU3	-0.116	-0.067	0.315	-0.057	-0.150	0.056	0.031	0.114	0.035	0.868	0.203	0.209	0.372	-0.034
	FBSIU4	-0.162	-0.142	0.138	-0.079	-0.212	0.097	0.025	0.079	0.054	0.728	0.069	0.155	0.346	-0.035
	OPPO1	0.017	0.061	0.202	0.039	0.037	0.201	0.163	0.245	0.215	0.127	0.742	0.444	0.145	0.087
	OPPO2	-0.005	0.033	0.227	0.043	0.106	0.196	0.139	0.285	0.243	0.126	0.738	0.465	0.133	0.097
	OPPO3	0.037	0.038	0.201	0.005	0.123	0.181	0.145	0.193	0.194	0.152	0.765	0.395	0.069	0.064
	OPPO4	0.003	0.006	0.174	-0.003	0.070	0.174	0.176	0.249	0.163	0.106	0.773	0.443	0.106	0.077
	OPPO5	-0.007	-0.010	0.179	0.008	0.097	0.172	0.155	0.240	0.230	0.106	0.769	0.431	0.076	0.003
	OPPO6	-0.046	0.057	0.126	0.033	0.067	0.086	0.108	0.175	0.112	0.089	0.608	0.342	0.061	0.085
	OPPO7	0.000	0.050	0.177	0.055	-0.036	0.149	0.093	0.162	0.180	0.105	0.700	0.424	0.181	0.047
	OPPO8	-0.005	-0.021	0.165	-0.037	0.053	0.192	0.108	0.250	0.189	0.114	0.726	0.427	0.123	0.091
	OPPO9	-0.008	0.073	0.226	0.049	0.022	0.168	0.159	0.258	0.162	0.099	0.704	0.407	0.183	0.017

OPPP	OPPP1	0.004	0.119	0.226	0.068	0.090	0.222	0.120	0.274	0.197	0.169	0.391	0.704	0.143	0.194
	OPPP12	-0.010	0.021	0.170	0.027	0.024	0.180	0.121	0.287	0.163	0.135	0.463	0.617	0.126	0.072
	OPPP13	-0.011	0.014	0.176	-0.004	0.000	0.175	0.104	0.296	0.225	0.194	0.431	0.635	0.185	0.071
	OPPP15	-0.007	0.016	0.135	0.009	0.018	0.174	0.103	0.295	0.217	0.204	0.517	0.568	0.164	0.034
	OPPP2	0.055	0.019	0.184	-0.050	0.115	0.228	0.146	0.266	0.171	0.170	0.365	0.752	0.114	0.149
	OPPP3	0.001	0.027	0.169	-0.040	0.072	0.187	0.116	0.282	0.222	0.155	0.408	0.824	0.125	0.161
	OPPP4	0.039	0.035	0.185	-0.001	0.122	0.127	0.052	0.304	0.172	0.125	0.415	0.788	0.052	0.138
	OPPP5	0.043	0.011	0.226	0.007	0.095	0.147	0.107	0.291	0.229	0.151	0.425	0.784	0.109	0.138
	OPPP6	0.022	0.031	0.185	-0.042	0.080	0.191	0.111	0.267	0.224	0.163	0.417	0.807	0.126	0.174
	OPPP7	0.027	-0.023	0.188	-0.067	0.015	0.186	0.158	0.267	0.197	0.165	0.382	0.733	0.146	0.138
FBPIU	OPPP8	0.127	-0.020	0.068	-0.058	0.050	0.130	0.114	0.244	0.193	0.102	0.352	0.609	0.149	0.144
	FBPIU1	-0.118	0.004	0.145	-0.067	-0.125	0.138	0.079	0.101	0.128	0.263	0.096	0.088	0.702	-0.003
	FBPIU2	-0.154	-0.027	0.312	-0.024	-0.156	0.100	0.079	0.143	0.108	0.361	0.152	0.131	0.793	0.001
	FBPIU3	-0.103	-0.024	0.306	-0.006	-0.119	0.115	0.124	0.148	0.111	0.366	0.134	0.186	0.820	0.021
PI	FBPIU4	-0.152	-0.029	0.230	-0.006	-0.214	0.129	0.055	0.090	0.060	0.296	0.121	0.133	0.779	-0.030
	PI3	-0.008	0.171	0.007	-0.067	0.078	0.164	0.117	0.084	0.129	-0.040	0.060	0.140	0.038	0.684
	PI4	-0.007	0.203	0.051	-0.021	0.019	0.122	0.077	0.129	0.107	0.017	0.087	0.149	0.010	0.742
	PI5	-0.011	0.268	0.046	-0.063	0.030	0.134	0.064	0.123	0.062	-0.003	0.037	0.120	-0.017	0.763
	PI6	-0.006	0.207	-0.024	-0.141	-0.009	0.174	0.124	0.130	0.112	-0.020	0.087	0.150	0.002	0.787
	PI7	0.037	0.216	0.002	-0.151	-0.003	0.091	0.005	0.093	0.100	-0.014	0.067	0.109	-0.072	0.706
	PI8	0.017	0.205	-0.034	-0.268	0.008	0.139	0.040	0.069	0.068	0.006	-0.007	0.099	0.039	0.667

Therefore, the result of the first stage hierarchical measurement model was achieved, this provide the ground for second stage hierarchical measurement model test.

4.5.1.2 Assessment of Second Stage Hierarchical Construct Model

The assessment of the second stage hierarchical construct model was also assessed. In line with (Kashif et al., 2018), Table 4.24 and figure 4.4 also contain the result of the CR and AVE of the second stage hierarchical construct measurement model. As shown in the table all the measurement specification of the second stage hierarchical constructs model for Facebook intensity, Facebook perception and online political participation have been met as suggested by Hair et al. (2013).

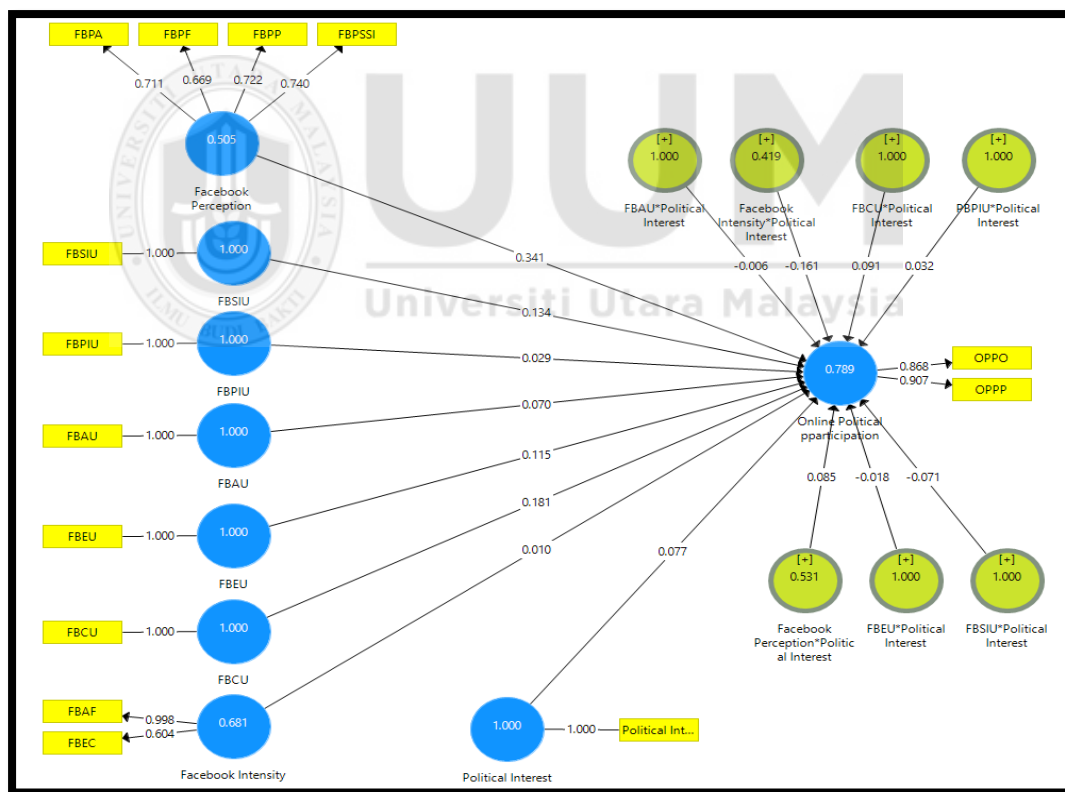


Figure 4.4 Second Stage Hierarchical Construct Measurement Model

Table 4.24

Results of the Assessment of Measurement Model for Second Stage Hierarchical Construct Model (Loadings, Average Variance Extracted (AVE) and Reliabilities)

Constructs	Items	Loadings	Cronbach's Alpha	Composite Reliability	Average Variance Extracted (AVE)
Facebook Intensity	FBAF	0.998	0.716	0.801	0.681
	FBEC	0.604			
Facebook Perception	FBPA	0.711	0.788	0.803	0.505
	FBPF	0.669			
	FBPP	0.722			
	FBPSSI	0.740			
Online Political Participation	OPPO	0.868	0.734	0.882	0.789
	OPPP	0.907			

Note: Facebook Attachment to Friends (FBAF) Facebook Emotional Connection (FBEC) Facebook perception of Privacy (FBPP) Facebook perception of Features (FBPF) Facebook perception of Sharing Social Information (FBPSSI) Facebook perception of Accessibility (FBPA) Political Interest (PI) Online Political Participation Performed (OPPP) Online Political Participation Observed (OPPO)

Similarly the discriminant validity for the second stage model was also assessed using the Fornell–Larcker criterion of evaluating discriminant validity with value score of 0.50 and above as shown in table 4.25

Table 4.25 Discriminant Validity of Second Order Model (Fornell & Larcker Criterion)

Constructs	Facebook Intensity	Facebook Perception	Online Political Participation
Facebook Intensity	0.825		
Facebook Perception	0.011	0.711	
Online Political Participation	0.04	0.436	0.888

Again, the discriminant validity for the second stage model was also assessed using the HTMT ratio of evaluating discriminant validity with value score above of 0.08 and above (Henseler et al., 2015) as shown in table 4.26

Table 4.26

Discriminant Validity Assessment of Second Order Model (HTMT)

Constructs	Facebook Intensity	Facebook Perception	Online Political Participation
Facebook Intensity			
Facebook Perception	0.096		
Online Political Participation	0.054	0.573	

Thus the assessment of second stage model as shown in table 4.24, 4.25 and 4.26 testified that the model is fit for running of structural modelling as all the measurement specification of the higher order variables of have met all the required measurement model specification as suggested by Hair et al. (2013). Obviously, in this study, the results of the measurement model confirm that all the constructs have accomplished adequate reliability and validity. This provide the ground for further analysis of structural model to test the direct and moderating relationships among the constructs.

4.5.2 Assessment of the Significance of the Structural Model

As the study has now achieved reliability and validity, the structural model was examined. However, the examination of structural model is pertinent because it serves as the evidence that a study's theory or model is supported by empirical data. The criteria for examining the significance of the structural model in this study include:

assessing significance of path coefficient, evaluating the level of R-squared values (R^2), determining the effect size (f^2) and establishing the predictive relevance (Q^2) of the model (Hair et al., 2014). Similarly, this study applied the standard bootstrapping procedure of 5,000 bootstrap samples and 473 cases to assess the significance of the path coefficient (Hair et al., 2014).

The structural model in this study consisted of main effects model in which the direct relationships between Facebook cognitive usage, Facebook social integrative usage, Facebook personal integrative usage, Facebook affective usage, Facebook escapist usage, Facebook intensity, Facebook perception and online political participation were examined and the interaction model in which the interactions were incorporated in to the model to test the moderating effects of political interest on the relationships. Table 4.27 show the result for the main direct effect and Table 4.31 show the result for the moderating effect while, Figure 4.5 presents the full estimates of the structural model, which includes the moderator variable i.e political interest. All the relationships in this study are represented by standardized T-values

4.5.2.1 Hypotheses Testing For Direct Relationship

Hypothesis H1b stated that Facebook cognitive usage is significantly positively relate to online political participation. Result in table 4.27 and figure 4.5 show a significant relationship between Facebook cognitive usage of youth and youth online political participation in Nigeria with statistical value of ($\beta=.0.181$, $t=3.836$, $p< 0.000$) supporting hypothesis 1b. Similarly, Hypothesis 1c which predicted that Facebook

social integrative usage is significantly positively relate to online political participation among youth in Nigeria is also supported with the following values ($\beta = 0.134$, $t = 3.252$, $P < 0.001$). While, hypothesis 1d which predicted a significant positive relationship between Facebook personal integrative usage and online political participation is not supported with the following values ($\beta = 0.029$, $t = 0.622$, $P < 0.267$). In contrast, the result of Hypothesis 1e which predicted a significant positive relationship between Facebook affective usage and online political participation is supported with the values of ($\beta = 0.070$, $t = 1.670$, $P < 0.048$). Also, the result of H1f show a significant relationship between Facebook escapist usage and online political participation with a beta value of (0.115, a t-value of 2.725 and a p-value of 0.003) accordingly.

Moreover, the hypothetical assumption of H2a is that there is a significant relationship between Facebook intensity and online political participation, however, this relationship is not supported with the following values ($\beta = 0.010$ $t = 0.221$, $P < 0.412$) respectively. Finally the last hypothesis that predicted a significant relationship is H3a, which stated that there is a significant relationship between Facebook perception and online political participation is supported with the significant value of ($\beta = 0.341$ $t = 7.933$, $P < 0.000$) respectively.

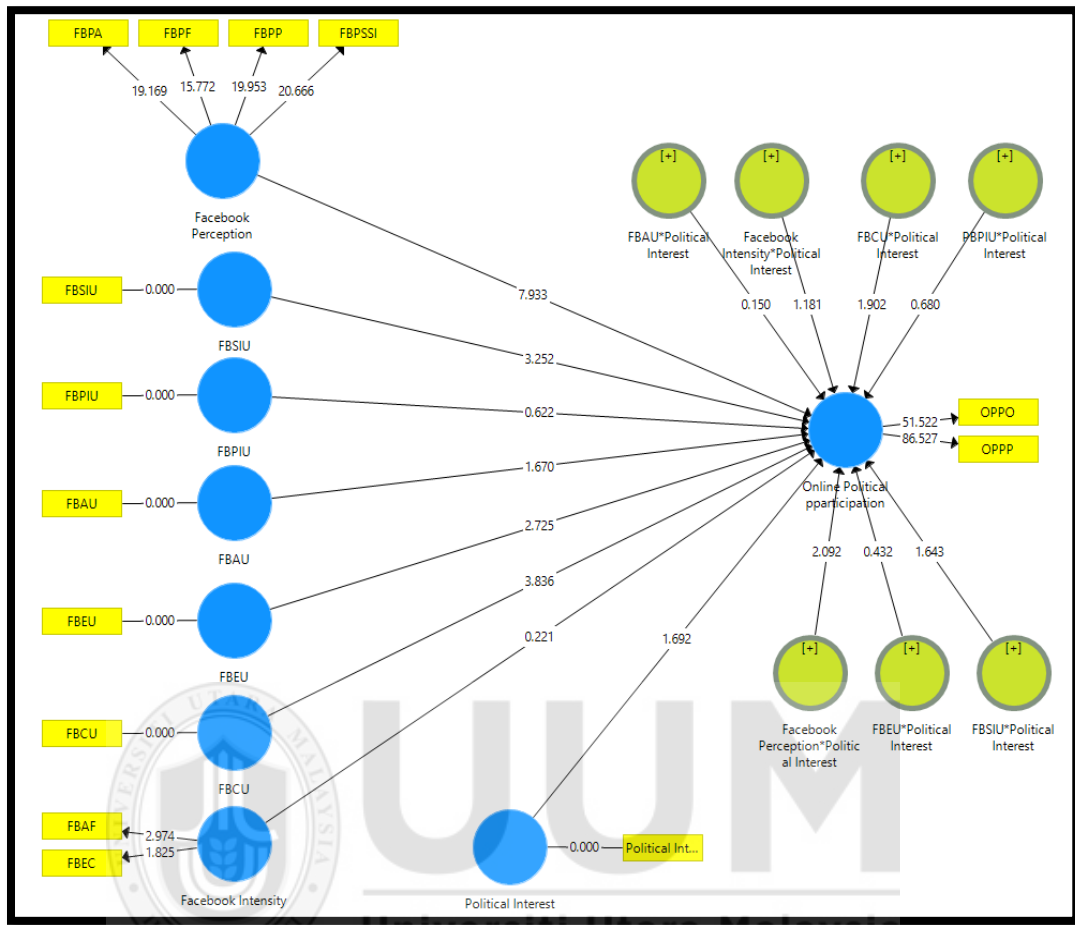


Figure 4.5 Structural Model (with the significance effect of Moderation)

Significantly, the findings from Figure 4.5 and Table 4.27 demonstrated that among the seven predictors for direct relationship, Facebook perception has the highest significant standardized t -value of (7.933), which indicates that Facebook perception is the most significant construct in predicting online political participation among youth in Nigeria

Table 4.27
Result of Hypothesis Testing (Direct Relationship)

Hypothesis	Relation	Std. Beta	Std. Error	t-values	p-values	Decision
H1b	Facebook Cognitive Usage -> Online Political Participation	0.181	0.047	3.836**	0.000	Supported
H1c	Facebook Social Integrative Usage -> Online Political Participation	0.134	0.041	3.252**	0.001	Supported
H1d	Facebook Personal Integrative Usage -> Online Political Participation	0.029	0.046	0.622	0.267	Not Supported
H1e	Facebook Affective Usage -> Online Political Participation	0.070	0.042	1.670*	0.048	Supported
H1f	Facebook Escapist Usage -> Online Political Participation	0.115	0.042	2.725**	0.003	Supported
H2a	Facebook Intensity -> Online Political Participation	0.010	0.047	0.221	0.412	Not Supported
H3a	Facebook Perception -> Online Political Participation	0.341	0.043	7.933**	0.000	Supported

Note: **Significant at 10%, *Significant at 5%

4.5.2.2 Assessment of Variance Explained in the Endogenous Latent Variable

To assess the structural model of this study, coefficient of determination (R-squared value) was also examined (Hensler et al, 2006). The coefficient of determination value is the proportion of variation in the dependent variable that can be explained by one or more of the predictor variable (Hair et al; 2010). Although the limit of R-squared value varies according to types of research, Chin (1998) suggest that R-squared value of 0.67,

0.33, 0.19 in PLS SEM can be regarded as Large, moderate and weak respectively. Therefore, the R-squared value of the endogenous latent variable in this study is 78% which is substantial. This means that the study model explains 78% of the total variance of online political participation. This suggest that the sets of exogenous variables of Facebook cognitive usage, Facebook social integrative usage, Facebook personal integrative usage, Facebook affective usage, Facebook escapist usage, Facebook Intensity, Facebook Perception and political interest, collectively explain 78% of the variance of the endogenous variable of Online Political Participation. Hence, according to chin's (1998) submission, the endogenous latent variable of this study shows acceptable level of R Square value.

Table 4.28
Variance Explained in the Endogenous Latent Variables

Latent Variables	Latent Variables Variance Explained (R2)
Online Political Participation	78%

4.5.2.3 Assessment of Effect Size

To assess the structural model of this study, the effect size was also examined which is the relative effect of a particular exogenous latent variable on endogenous latent variable by means of changes in the R-squared value, It is calculated as the increase in R-squared value of the latent variable to which the path is connected, comparative to the latent variable's proportion of unexplained variance (Chin, 1989). Additionally, Cohen (1989) noted that effect size can be assessed through the following formula.

$$\text{Effect size } (f^2) = \frac{R^2 \text{ included} - R^2 \text{ excluded}}{1 - R^2 \text{ included}}$$

Cohen described F2 values of 0.02, 0.15, and 0.35 as weak, moderate and strong effect respectively. Therefore, result shows the effect sizes of the constructs in this study is 0.131 (Small), 0.033 (Small), 0.22 (Small), 0.017 (Small), 0.009 (None), 0.009 (None), 0.003 (None) and 0.00 (None) effect sizes for Facebook perception, Facebook cognitive usage, Facebook social integrative usage, Facebook escapist usage, political interest, Facebook affective usage, Facebook personal integrative usage and Facebook intensity respectively. It is important to note that a small f2 does not principally indicate an insignificant effect (Limayen, Hirt & Chin, 2001). The respective effect sizes of the latent variables of the structural model are shown in Table 4.29

Table 4.29
Effect Size (F²) of Latent Variable Based on Cohen (1989) Suggestion

Construct	F2	Size
Facebook Perception	0.131	Small
Facebook Cognitive Usage	0.033	Small
Facebook Social Integrative Usage	0.022	Small
Facebook Escapist Usage	0.017	Small
Political Interest	0.009	None
Facebook Affective Usage	0.009	None
Facebook Personal Integrative Usage	0.003	None
Facebook Intensity	0.001	None

4.5.2.3.1 Assessment of Predictive Relevance (Construct Cross-Validated Redundancy)

In finding the predictive relevance of this study, the Stone-Geisser test of blindfolding (Geisser1976; Stone, 1974) was used. Blindfolding procedure is only applied to dependent variable that has a reflective measurement model operationalization (Sattler, Volckner, Riedger & Ringle, 2010). Consequently, reflective measurement, such as the model of this study specifies that a latent variable causes variation in a set of observable indicators. Thus, since the endogenous latent variable in this study is reflective, a blindfolding procedure was applied mainly to exogenous variable of this study i.e. online political participation.

Therefore, a cross-validated redundancy measure (Q²) was used to assess the predictive relevance of the research model (Hair et al, 2014). The cross-validated redundancy was chosen in this study because it contains the key elements of the path model and the structural model. The Q² is a criterion to measure how well a model predict eliminated data points (Chin, 1998). Hensler et al. (2009) noted that a study model with Q² statistics greater than zero is considered to have predictive relevance. Furthermore, a research model with higher positive Q² values suggest more predictive relevance. The result of predictive relevance in this study indicated that the cross-validated redundancy measure Q² for the endogenous latent variable is above zero this suggest predictive relevance of the model in accordance to recommendation of (Chin, 1998). The result is shown in table 4.30

Table 4.30

Predictive Relevance (Construct Cross-Validated Redundancy)

Endogenous Variable	SSO	SSE	1- SSO/SSE
Online political Participation	946	762.307	0.194

4.5.2.4 Hypothesis Testing For Moderating Effect

In examining the moderating effect researchers employ a product-indicator approach to estimate the interactions effects of the moderation. The approach entails taking the product terms between the indicators of the latent independent variable and the indicators of the latent moderator variable to examine the measure of the interaction effects in the model. The result is that, moderating effects exist whenever the interaction terms are significant (Hair et al., 2014). In addition, Rigdon, Schumacker and Wothke (1998) reported that using a term product approach is suitable when the moderating variable is continuous. This study used the product indicator approach to test the strength of the moderating effect of political interest on the relationship of Facebook cognitive usage, Facebook cognitive usage, Facebook cognitive usage, Facebook social integrative usage, Facebook personal integrative usage, Facebook affective usage, Facebook escapist usage, Facebook intensity, Facebook perception and online political participation. The result of the interaction effects between the exogenous latent constructs and the endogenous latent construct is contain in Table 4.31

Table 4.31

Result of Hypotheses Testing for Moderating Effect

Hypothesis	Moderation	Std. Beta	Std. Error	t-values	p-values	Decision
H ^{4a}	FBCU*Political Interest - > Online Political Participation	0.091	0.048	1.902*	0.029	Supported
H ^{4b}	FBSIU*Political Interest -> Online Political Participation	- 0.071	0.043	1.643*	0.051	Supported
H ^{4c}	PBPIU*Political Interest -> Online Political Participation	0.032	0.048	0.680	0.248	Not Supported
H ^{4d}	FBAU*Political Interest -> Online Political Participation	- 0.006	0.042	0.150	0.440	Not Supported
H ^{4e}	FBEU*Political Interest - > Online Political Participation	- 0.018	0.042	0.432	0.333	Not Supported
H ^{5a}	FBI*Political Interest -> Online Political Participation	- 0.161	0.137	1.181	0.119	Not Supported
H ^{6a}	FBP*Political Interest -> Online Political Participation	0.085	0.040	2.092*	0.018	Supported

Note: **Significant at 10%, *Significant at 5%

The results from table 4.31 shows the interactions terms of the seven (7) exogenous constructs. Out of the seven interactions terms, three were found to be significant while four of the hypotheses were found not to be significant. Hypothesis 4a stated that political interest moderates the relationship between Facebook cognitive usage and online political participation among youth in Nigeria. As stated, the relationship is expected to be stronger for youth with high PI than youth with low PI, Hence, as shown in table 4.31, figure 4.5 and 4.6, the result of the interactions revealed a positive moderation ($\beta=0.091$, $t=1.902$, $p<0.029$) supporting hypothesis 4a.

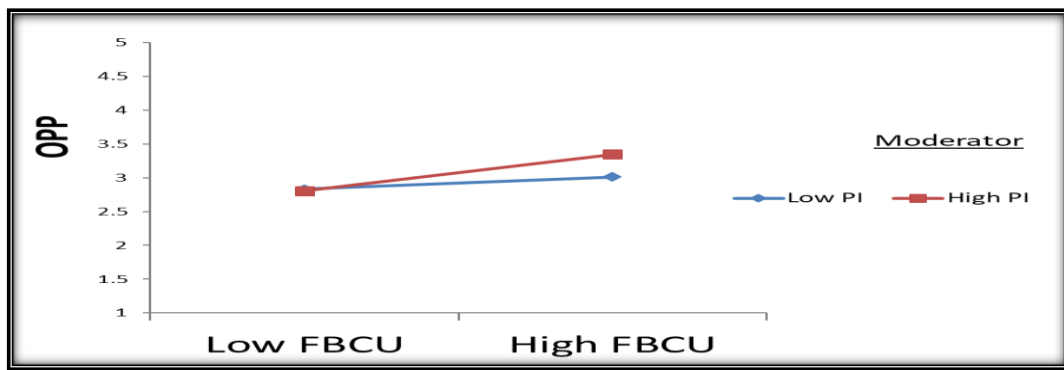


Figure 4.6 PI strengthens the Positive Relationship between FBCU and Online Political Participation

Similarly, Hypothesis 6a indicated that PI moderates the positive relationship between Facebook perception and online political participation among youth in Nigeria. As such, the relationship is anticipated to be of significant value for youth with high PI value than youth with low PI value. The result of the moderation test indicated a significant relationship with the following value ($\beta = 0.085$, $t = 2.092$, $P < 0.018$), table 4.31 Figure 4.5 and 4.7. Thus, the hypothesis is supported.

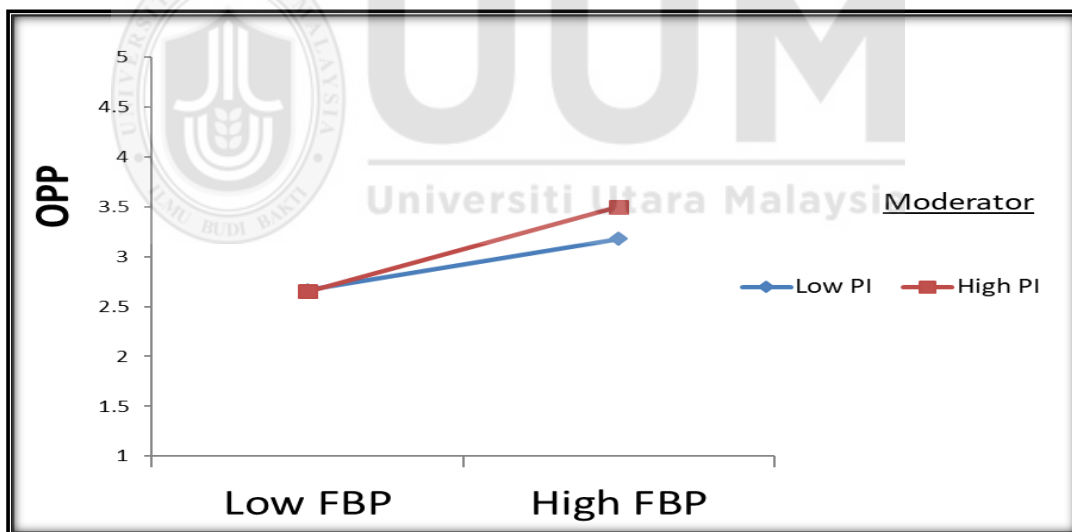


Figure 4.7 PI strengthens the Positive Relationship between FBP and Online Political Participation

Similarly, Hypothesis 4b which predicted that political interest moderates the relationship between Facebook social integrative usage and online political

participation among youth in Nigeria is also confirm significant with the following value ($\beta = -0.071$, $t = -1.643$, $P < 0.051$). Thus the hypothesis is supported.

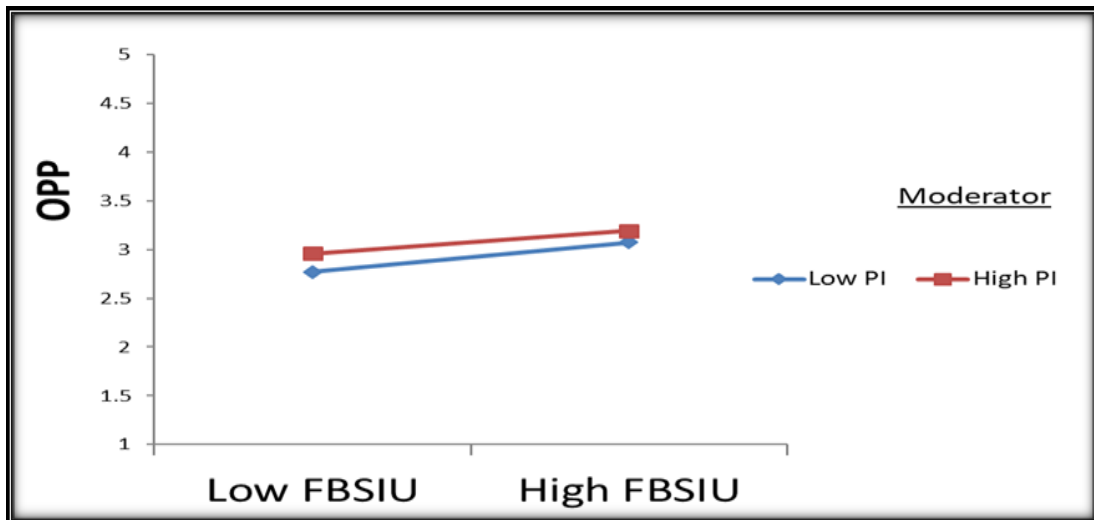


Figure 4.8 PI strengthens the Positive Correlation between FBSIU and Online Political Participation

In contrast, the remaining moderating hypotheses in this study were not supported. Specifically, Hypothesis H4c which predicted a moderation effect of political interest on the relationship between Facebook personal integrative usage and online political participation, is not supported as indicated in the values ($\beta = -0.032$, $t = -1.680$, $P < 0.248$).

While, hypothesis H4d with the prediction of moderation of political interest between Facebook affective usage and online political participation is not supported with the following values ($\beta = -0.016$, $t = 0.150$, $P < 0.440$). Another hypothesized moderation is H⁵a which predicted that political interest moderates the relationship between Facebook intensity and online political participation, however, the result show that political interest did not moderates the relationship between Facebook intensity and

online political participation as confirmed by the following values ($\beta = -0.161$, $t = 1.181$, $P < 0.119$). In addition, the hypothesis H^{4e}, stated that political interest moderates the relationship between Facebook escapist usage and online political participation, but, the result of moderation analysis with values ($\beta = -0.118$, $t = 0.432$, $P < 0.333$) confirm that political interest did not moderates the relationship between Facebook escapist usage and online political participation.

4.6 Summary of Findings

Having presented all the results of analysis of this study Table 4.32 summarizes the results of all hypotheses tested in this study, it shows that nine of the hypotheses formulated for this study are supported while nine are not supported

Table 4.32

Summary of Hypotheses Testing

Hypothesis	Statement	Finding
H1a	There is a significant difference between male and female in online political participation	Supported
H1b	Facebook cognitive usage significantly relate to online political participation among youth in Nigeria.	Supported
H1c	Facebook social integrative usage significantly relate to online political participation among youth in Nigeria.	Supported
H1d	Facebook personal integrative usage significantly relate to online political participation among youth in Nigeria.	Not Supported
H1e	Facebook affective usage significantly relate to online political participation among youth in Nigeria.	Supported
H1f		Supported

	Facebook escapist usage significantly relate to online political participation among youth in Nigeria.	
H2a	Facebook intensity significantly relate to online political participation among youth in Nigeria.	Not Supported
H3a	Facebook perception significantly relate to online political participation among youth in Nigeria.	Supported
H4a	Political interest moderates the relationship Facebook cognitive usage and online political participation among youth in Nigeria.	Supported
H4b	Political interest moderates the relationship Facebook social integrative and online political participation among youth in Nigeria.	Supported
H4c	Political interest moderates the relationship between Facebook personal integrative usage and online political participation among youth in Nigeria.	Not Supported
H4d	Political interest moderates the relationship between Facebook affective usage and online political participation among youth in Nigeria.	Not Supported
H4e	Political interest moderates the relationship between Facebook escapist usage and online political participation among youth in Nigeria.	Not Supported
H5a	Political interest moderates the relationship between Facebook intensity and online political participation among youth in Nigeria	Not Supported
H6a	Political interest moderates the relationship between Facebook perception and online political participation among youth in Nigeria	Supported
H1g	There is a significant difference between male and female in Facebook usage	Not Supported
H2b	There is a significant difference between male and female in Facebook intensity	Not Supported
H3b	There is a significant difference between male and female in Facebook	Not Supported

4.7 Chapter Summary

This chapter contained an exploratory data analysis of the collected data of the study which was carried out through screening and preliminary analysis to ensure the fitness of the data for further PLS analysis. After that, the significance of the models of the study are assessed. The findings of the study, which the main objective is to investigate the relationship between Facebook usage, Facebook intensity, Facebook perception and online political participation among youth in Nigeria was presented. The model assessment in the chapter substantiates adequate reliability and validity of the study constructs. A total of seven hypotheses were formulated to test the direct relationship. Out of the seven direct relationships that were tested, five of the hypotheses were supported while two were not supported. Similarly, seven hypotheses were formulated to determine the moderating effects of political interest on the relationship between the exogenous variable and the endogenous variable. Out of the seven moderating hypotheses, only three were supported while four were not supported. Additionally, four hypotheses were formulated to test the statistical difference between male and female in the response to the main study constructs. Generally, of the eighteen hypotheses of the study nine are significant and nine are not significant.

In the next chapter, the discussion of the findings will be given, to be followed by the research implications, limitations of the study, suggestions for future study and finally, the conclusion.

CHAPTER FIVE

DISCUSSION CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION

5.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents a detailed discussion of finding of this study by relating them to the theoretical postulations and previous studies on media and political participation, A review of the finding of this study is presented, then a discussion about the findings in line with theoretical underpinning and relate studies are examined. In addition, methodological, theoretical, and practical implications of the study are discussed, equally, the limitation of the study and recommendation for future studies are presented and the conclusion of the study will be drawn.

5.2 Recapitulation of the Study Findings

The main objective of this study is to investigate the relationship between Facebook use and online political participation among youth in Nigeria. Additionally, to examine the moderating role of political interest on the relationship of Facebook use (Facebook usage, Facebook intensity, Facebook perception) and online political participation among youth in Nigeria. Specifically, this study seeks to achieve four objectives which were also moulded as research questions to guide the conduct of the study:

What is the level of online political participation among youth in Nigeria? Is there any significant difference between male and female in Facebook intensity, Facebook usage, Facebook perception and online political participation among youth in Nigeria? Is there a significant positive relationship between Facebook usage, Facebook intensity, Facebook Perception, and online political participation among youth in Nigeria? Does

political interest moderate the relationship between Facebook usage, Facebook intensity, Facebook Perception and online political participation among youth in Nigeria?

In view of the sequence of the research questions, in determining the level of online political participation, the result of the mean statistics show a moderate level of online political participation among youth in Nigeria, which indicate that that on the average, Nigerian youth participated in politics online. While, in testing the differences between male and female, the result of the t-test indicate a varying result of both significant difference and non-significant differences. Precisely the result show that there is a significant difference between male and female in online political participation among youth. In contrast, the results also show that there is no significant difference between male and female in the Facebook usage and the Facebook perception. In addition, the t-test result also revealed that there was no significant difference in the Facebook intensity between male and female.

Furthermore, in terms of direct relationship between the exogenous and endogenous variables, the result shows that five out of the seven formulated hypotheses for direct relationship were significant, while two were not supported. Specifically, the results of the PLS-SEM analysis revealed that Facebook cognitive usage, Facebook social integrative usage, Facebook affective sage and Facebook perception are significantly related to online political participation. In contrast, Facebook Intensity is not significantly related to online political participation. Moreover, in testing the

moderating relationship, the PLS-SEM result indicates a varying results of both significant and non-significant relationship. Precisely, political interest is found to moderate the relationship between Facebook cognitive usage, Facebook social integrative usage and online political participation. However, the result also revealed that political interest did not moderate the relationship between Facebook intensity, Facebook personal integrative usage, Facebook affective usage, Facebook escapist usage and online political participation. Political interest is also found to significantly moderate the relationship between Facebook perception and online political participation.

5.3 Discussion

This section presents a detailed discussion on the finding of this study in relation to the theoretical framework and previous studies. The discussion is structured according to the research question and research objectives of this study

5.3.1 Level of Online Political Participation of Youth in Nigeria

The first research question is on the level of online political participation of youth in Nigeria. In line with this question, the objective is to determine the level of online political participation among youth in Nigeria. To achieve this objective, the study used mean distribution to analyse the survey data.

Online political participation is the political participatory acts on Facebook such as liking, commenting, and sharing of political content on Facebook such as a political

message, information, picture or text on personal, group or friend's wall (Lutz, Hoffmann & Meckel, 2014). Based on the collected data from the youth using 5-point Likert scale, the descriptive analysis was carried out to calculate the mean values of online political participation of the youth. The result show that youth in Nigeria participated moderately in politic in politics on Facebook. The outcome of this finding is consistent with prior studies (e.g Boulianne, 2011, 2015b; Dermody, Hanmer-Lloyd, & Scullion, 2010; Pasek, Kenski, Romer, & Jamieson, 2006; Quintelier & Vissers, 2008) For example. Bronstein, Gazit, Perez, Bar-Ilan, Aharony and Amichai-Hamburger (2016) reported a moderate level of participation (with 2.99 mean value) among youth in politics on Facebook. While Quintelier and Vissers (2008) reported that Belgian youth display low level of political participation online because they are not eligible to vote, this has reduced their level of political participation. In this way, it can be concluded that the political participation level of youth in Nigeria was moderately high if compared to a similar study conducted among youth across various countries. The results of the present study, therefore provides some empirical evidence to the political actors and policy makers in Nigeria on the level of online political participation of youth.

Secondly, the plausible reason for the above finding is ascribed to the demographic characteristics of the respondents. All the respondents have Facebook account this may enable them to engage in political activities online, added to that, most of the youth in Nigeria are on social media and they subscribed to online friendship and this may induce them in political comment and discussion for example 82% the youth have

more than 300 friends on Facebook. This is an indication that the youth have access to a lot of political activities of several Facebook friends, which will empower their motivation to participate in politics.

Thirdly, another reason for the adequate level of online political participation among youth is that respondents in this study were undergraduates. Literature showed that undergraduates were particularly found to be heavy users of social media (Kushin & Yamamoto, 2010). which qualified them with the access of participating in politics online. Similarly, findings of earlier studies showed that youth are among the group of people that use social media for political activities most in the society (Al-Kandari & Hasanen, 2012; Checkoway, 2011; Dagona, Karick, & Abubakar, 2013). This showed that youth in Nigeria would show adequate level of political participation since they are heavy users of social media especially Facebook.

In addition, the majority of the respondents are above 18 years, which is the eligible voting age in Nigeria (INEC, 2015) they are more inclined to participate in politics online (unconventional) than participate in politics offline (conventional). Several Literature showed that there is positive correlation between youth of 16 to 35 ages and online political participation (Gaiser, de Rijke, & Spannring, 2010; Melo & Stockemer, 2014; Theocharis & Quintelier, 2014; Vitak et al., 2011b; Weaver Lariscy, Tinkham, & Sweetser, 2011). This is ascribed to the fact that youth perception of politics dwells more on online political activities. (Gaiser et al., 2010).

5.3.2 Differences between Male and Female in terms of Online Political Participation, Facebook Usage, Facebook Intensity, Facebook Perception among Youth in Nigeria

The second research question is about whether there is any significant difference between male and female in online political participation, Facebook usage, Facebook intensity, Facebook Perception and among youth in Nigeria. Therefore, the hypothesis statement is that there is a significant difference between male and female in online political participation, fortunately, the descriptive statistic result of the t-test confirm that there is a significant difference between male and female youth in relation to their response for online political participation. This finding is consistent with the findings of other researchers (Albanesi, Zani, & Cicognani, 2012; Hill, 2003; Jennings, 1983; Kaid & Holtz-Bacha, 2000; Norris, 1991; Paxton, Kunovich, & Hughes, 2007; Pfanzelt, & Spies, 2018; Studlar, McAllister, & Hayes, 1998; Verba, Burns, & Schlozman, 1997). For example, Albanesi et al. (2012) found that that female are more likely than men to have engaged political activities and engaged in 'private' participation, while men are more likely to have engaged in direct political contact and collective types of participation with active political party members. Similarly, Zaheer (2016) found that male youth have more active political participation in both offline and online participation contrary to female youth that were found to be less active on both online and offline scale. They concluded that although female youth are not politically active like male youth. However, their political participation is now enriched by their online presence. Additionally, Hamid, Ishak, and Yusof, (2016) in their study also corroborated that women perceive that they could gain political knowledge in their usage of social media.

Secondly, the significant difference in political participation between male and female youth in Nigeria is not surprising because many studies conducted in developed nations, Britain, Germany, France, Poland and Romania (Kaid & Holtz-Bacha, 2000), Australia and America (Hill, 2003) also in developing nations like Nigeria, South Africa, Kenya, Mali and other 14 countries, studies have recorded differences in the pattern of political participation between male and female (Coffe & Bolzendahl, 2011).

Thirdly, the result of this significant difference between male and female in Nigeria may not be unconnected with the attitudinal characteristics and demographic differences among male and female as well as across types of participation. For example, participation in Nigeria, is considered as role to be played by males who were considered culturally and economically as active public figure and political figure, while female are considered as passive supporters who mainly provide matrimonial and supportive role to the male (Awofeso & Odeyemi, 2014).

Another, plausible reason for the difference in online political participation between male youth and female in Nigeria is the ability to access online platform to participate in political activities. In Nigeria, males have more economic purchasing power than females (Awofeso & Odeyemi, 2014). Therefore, most of the female youth in Nigeria lacked the resources to access the online platform. This is congruent to the postulation of the model of this study i.e civic voluntarism model (CVM) that people participate in politics if they have the resources which the model defined as (time and money) (Verba, Schlozman, & Brady, 1995).

Furthermore, in term of whether the male differ from the female in relation to their response for Facebook usage, this study found that there is no any difference between male and female youth in relation to their response for Facebook usage. This finding is consistent with the findings of other researchers, (Abdullah, Ling, & Roslan, 2014; Biernatowska, Balcerowska, & Bereznowski, 2017; Jesus Milton Rousseau, & Puttaraju 2014; Malik & Mahmood, 2012; Tifferet & Vilnai-Yavetz, 2014) they conducted an examination of trend of Facebook usage and found non-significant difference between male and female in the usage. For example, Jesus Milton Rousseau, & Puttaraju (2014) discovered non-significant difference in usage of Facebook between male and female youth in the way they share their hobby passion and their favourite music and videos. Similarly, they also found similarities between them in sharing their friends' status messages.

Again, Biernatowska et al., (2017) concluded that no gender difference was found in respect to the time which male and female youth normally spent on Facebook. These examples of research results which also corroborate the present study may not be unconnected to how female in Nigeria are also keen on using social media, like their male counterpart, this may therefore influence the similarity of their responses with that of male youth on the dimensions of the variable of Facebook. This result shows that Nigerian youth irrespective of their gender have similar motivation when it comes to responding to dimensions of Facebook usage variable and that male and female youth in Nigeria spent similar time when it comes to the usage of Facebook.

Also, in term of difference between male and female youth in relation to their response to Facebook intensity, the result of the t-test show that there is no difference between male and female youth in relation to their response to Facebook intensity. This finding lends credence to the findings of other researchers such as (Ellison, Steinfield, & Lampe, 2007; Patil, 2018; Shen, Vodanovich, & Khalifa, 2015; Raacke & Bonds-Raacke, 2010; Tifferet & Vilnai-Yavetz, 2014). For example, in a recent study Patil (2018) did not find a significant gender difference in the Facebook intensity of emotional connection to Facebook among undergraduates. Similarly, Shen et al. (2015) also found that responses to the variable of Facebook intensity show no significant gender difference between male and female. They also found that there is no difference between male and female in their connecting with friend.

In essence, this non-significant result of gender difference in Facebook intensity among Nigerian youth may not be unconnected to the fact that an average Nigerian youth male and female on equal basis wants to follow the activities of their Facebook friends and communicate with friends whom they share the same views on Facebook. The result also means that Nigerian youth irrespective of their gender want to have a voice and be heard on Facebook by joining groups for friendship.

Although, this study also hypothesize that there is a significant difference between male and female youth in relation to their response to Facebook perception, However, the result of the t-test rejected the assumption and confirm that that there is no difference between male and female youth in relation to their response for Facebook

usage. This result is consistent with the findings of other researchers such as (Alhazmi & Rahman, 2013) where they did not find any significant difference in Facebook perception of undergraduate male and female. Although, the findings of this result stand in contrast to the findings of (Błachnio, Przepiorka, & Pantic, 2016; Sheehan, 1999; Fogel & Nehmad, 2009) that found a gender difference between female and male in terms of their perception of privacy and features on Facebook. However, a vital area of attention this study points to is both male and female have no differences about their positive perception of Facebook features and privacy issues. This positive perception of Facebook may also explain the reason of the popularity of Facebook platform among social media in the midst of Nigerian youth irrespective of their gender

Consequently, this finding signifies that Nigerian youth irrespective of their gender perceives Facebook as a social media platform that is easily accessible to them more than any other medium. Similarly, the non-significant gender difference is an indicative of equal perception among Nigerian youth male and female in the varieties of features that Facebook offers them such as ability to share information which helps in getting more friend on the platform of result for them.

5.3.3 The Relationship of Facebook Usage, Facebook Intensity and Facebook Perception on Online Political Participation

The third research question is about how Facebook usage (cognitive, social integrative, personal integrative, affective and escapist), Facebook intensity, Facebook perception, relates to online political participation of youth in Nigeria. In line with this question, the third objective of this study is to determine the relationship of Facebook

usage, Facebook intensity, Facebook perception and online political participation. Consequently, the result of the relationship is discussed below.

5.3.3.1 Relationship of Facebook Cognitive Usage on Online Political Participation

According to Scholars Tolbert and Mcneal (2003) and Yang and DeHart (2016) Facebook cognitive usage leads to political participation. Thus, hypothesis was formulated to test the influence Facebook cognitive usage on online political participation among youth in Nigeria. In this present study, Facebook cognitive usage is conceptualized as Facebook usage by the youth for seeking available information that may relate to their use for online political participation (Katz, Haas, & Gurevitch, 1973). It explains the motivation of a Facebook consumer to visit the social media primarily to seek information, knowledge or general understanding of the environment. As postulated, Facebook cognitive usage is significantly relates online political participation, the relationship was found to be positive and significant.

This empirical finding coincided with the results of previous studies that found Facebook cognitive usage to significantly influence online political participation (Yang & DeHart, 2016; Pattie, Seyd, & Whiteley, 2003; Tang & Lee, 2013; Tolbert & Mcneal, 2003; Vitak et al., 2011) their studies have shown that over time the online political participation can stem from Facebook usage. Therefore the more exposed youth are to information, on Facebook the more they will participate in online politics (Bae, 2014; Dagona, Karick, & Abubakar, 2013). Thus, Facebook cognitive usage has led to a greater participation of youth in online politics. Similarly, the findings of this study are

in line with (Tang & Lee, 2013) that cognitive usages of seeking information were more correlated to civic and political participation.

Furthermore, the positive relationship between Facebook cognitive usage and political participation indicates that when the youths are able to use Facebook for their cognitive usage of getting information to satisfy their information need they are more likely to participate and performed various political participation activities and they are also likely to observe various political participation activities on Facebook that is why the level of Nigerian youth participation in politics has grown rapidly with emergence of social media platforms such as Facebook.

Another possible reason for the significance of this finding is that, Facebook is the most commonly used social media platform among youth in Nigeria (Onyechi, 2018; Raymond, Eegunlusi, & Omilusi, 2018) share this same view when they concluded that it is through the access to Facebook that Nigerian youth are able to chat with friends, family and other acquaintances this has moved the Nigerian youth to the next level in the information age of today.

Another plausible reason for this finding is that Facebook usage has become vogue among Nigerian youth, because they utilize it as a platform to influence the direction of politics in Nigeria. Researchers (Adaja & Ayodele, 2013; Queen, Chiemela, & Obochi, 2015) have established that Nigerian youth are the driving force of the Nigerian politics. For example, through Facebook usage, especially among the youth,

it is with just a few clicks between friends the information can be shared by many friends and it can go a long way in influencing a political policy in the country.

5.3.3.2 Relationship of Facebook Social Integrative Usage on Online Political Participation.

As mentioned earlier, Facebook social integrative usage “is Facebook usage by the youth that enable them to interact with friends, family and relations online which may relate to online political participation (Katz, Haas, & Gurevitch, 1973). It explains the motivation of a youth Facebook consumer primarily to interact with friends, family on Facebook. Thus, a hypothesis was formulated to test the influence of Facebook social integrative usage on online political participation among youth in Nigeria. The result in this study revealed a significant relationship between Facebook social integrative usage and youth’s online political participation.

This suggests that higher social integrative usage of Facebook by the youth will enhance youth online political participation. Specifically, when youth are committed to the need and motivation to use Facebook to interact with their friends and family, such as in political groups, they will be motivated to engage in the political groups and thus participating in politics. This finding is congruent to uses and gratification theory (Katz, Haas, & Gurevitch, 1973) which emphasizes the consequence of using media based on the consideration of motives behind media use and the process of gratifying those motives. In the context of this study, the youth would demonstrate a high level of online political participation if they prioritize on the social integrative usage of Facebook.

Again, it is not surprising that we found that Nigerian youth's social integrative usage of Facebook strongly influence them to join in commenting about politics as well as persuade them to get involved in politics online. Recent researches have tried to connect social integrative usage of Facebook user with political participation in Facebook (Masiha, Habiba, Abbas, Saud, & Ariadi, 2018) Other researchers also identified political self-efficacy as an important predictor of online political participation (Tang & Lee, 2013). This present study adds more empirical substantiation to the current literature in these aspects.

Similarly, consistent with the civic voluntarism model (Verba et al., 1995) that people will be active in participation in politics only when they are within the recruitment network e.g. Facebook Platform that mobilizes and bring people into political participation. This may explain the above result of significant relationship between youth's social integrative usage of Facebook for online political participation in Nigeria.

5.3.3.3 Relationship of Facebook Personal Integrative Usage on Online Political Participation

Facebook personal integrative usage is about the usage of Facebook by the youth that enable them to portray their status as they are using online media (Katz, Haas, & Gurevitch, 1973), this may specifically lead to youth online political participation Therefore, the study hypothesize that Facebook personal integrative usage significantly relate to online political participation. However, contrary to the proposed hypothesis,

Facebook personal integrative usage was not found to be significantly related online political participation. In other words, Facebook personal integrative usage failed to predict youth's online political participation in Nigeria. Therefore, the hypothesis is also not supported.

While some studies argue that Facebook personal integrative usage has positive effects on an individual's participation (Masiha et.al., 2018), on the contrary, some other studies have recorded Facebook personal usage has negative relationship to online political participation. This finding further contributes to the mixed results in the previous studies (e.g Mishra, Niblock, & Shansky, 2014; Mersin & Acilar, 2015; Yesil, 2014; Masiha, Habiba, Abbas, Saud & Ariadi, 2018).

For instance, Masiha et al. (2018) in their study of political participation on Facebook found a significant correlation between Facebook personal use and political participation among youth in Pakistan. Specifically, the finding by Masiha et al. (2018) may reflect the Asian context in which the study was conducted where youth may have high interest in different motivation of using Facebook for politics. While the result of the present study may reflect the African context or even Nigerian context where their personal motivation of using Facebook may not influence their relationship to participate in online politics.

Additionally, another plausible explanation that might cause the non-significant result, could be attributed to the result of the descriptive statistic of the level of political

participation of youth in this study, which show that level of participation is at the Moderate level. Therefore, this may lead to the insignificant relationship between personal integrative use of Facebook by the youth and its relationship to political participation among youth of this study.

5.3.3.4 Relationship of Facebook Affective Usage on Online Political Participation

Facebook affective usage is primarily about the need a consumer has in using media for the motive of getting pleasure and emotional experiences (Katz, et al., 1974). It is about assessing the intention of media consumers to visit the media primarily for aesthetic, pleasure and emotional experiences. Thus, the study tested the influence of Facebook affective usage on online political participation among youth in Nigeria. The result in this study showed a significant and positive relationship between Facebook affective usage on online political participation. This indicates that youth with adequate affective motivation for Facebook would achieve high political participation. With the use of Facebook for attaining pleasure and entertainment, youth would have sufficient information in terms of political participation. Hence, the youth would be more likely to exhibit high level of political participation online because they are related to their usage of Facebook for pleasure motive.

The finding is consistent with previous studies (Akin & Akin, 2015; Kaye & Johnson, 2005; Kim & Kim, 2007; Zarouali et al., 2018) for instance, Kim and Kim (2007) found that entertainment motive among other four distinct dimensions of uses and

gratification relate significantly to political engagement, political interest, political talk, political knowledge and online political participation among Korean adolescents.

5.3.3.5 Relationship of Facebook Escapist Usage on Online Political Participation

Escapist usage is the use of media primarily to escape from boredom, to forget about problems or just to relax (Katz, et al., 1973). It is about the usage of Facebook by the youth with the motive of escaping boredom and everyday activities of life to the world of media, relaxing from stress and releasing tension. Thus, the study postulated, that facebook escapist usage significantly relates to online political participation among youth, indeed, the relationship was found to be significant. The finding is consistent with previous studies (Hoffmann et al., 2017; Queen, Chiemela, Obochi, 2015) For example Queen, Chiamela and Obochi (2015) found a significant correlation between escapism information seeking and Facebook usage on social media such as Facebook among youth in Nigeria.

Generally, the results of this study indicate that the Nigerian youth embark on the Facebook usage with different motives, the more they use Facebook for the satisfaction of those motives the more they will participate in politics.

5.3.3.6 Relationship of Facebook Intensity on Online Political Participation

Facebook intensity as a variable that refers to Facebook user's strong emotional connection with the site and attachment to user's Facebook Friends (Joinson 2008; Kaseraporn 2011). Thus, it was postulated that Facebook intensity significantly relates

to online political participation among youth in Nigeria. However, this relationship was found to be of negative effect on online political participation, which means it is not supported. This is a relatively surprising finding and not consistent with previous studies that found positive relations between Facebook intensity and online political participation (Al-Fadhli & Al-Saleh, 2012; Bakker & de Vreese, 2011; Chapman & Coffé, 2016; Wright et al., 2008).

One of the possible reason that may lead to the insignificant relationship may be, it is mainly related to contextual issues. There are certain aspects of Facebook intensity in which may influence youth participation in one context, but may not be effective in another context. For example, Al-Fadhli and Al-Saleh (2012) that conducted their study in Kuwait and their result showed a significant relationship. The findings also supported Landers (2015) who found there is no agreement on the relationship between Facebook intensity and self-esteem. Therefore, this finding stresses the need for more enquiry to confirm the effects of Facebook intensity and online political participation.

5.3.3.7 Relationship of Facebook Perception on Online Political Participation.

Perception can be seen as the process in which individual selects or organizes and understands stimuli and clear picture of things the world (Schiffman, & Kanuk, 2004). Facebook perception in this study refers to how Facebook user's perceive privacy nature, available features of Facebook, the accessibility nature of Facebook and information sharing provisions that are available on Facebook as a social media platform (Haque, Sarwar, & Yasmin, 2013).

Thus, the study conducted a test on the influence Facebook perception on online political participation among youth in Nigeria, with the assumption that Facebook perception significantly relates to online political participation. Subsequently, it was confirmed that Facebook perception significantly influences online political participation among youth. This empirical finding concurred with the results of previous studies that found perception of Facebook features and privacy to positively influence youth political participation (Bock Seggaard, 2015; Bosch, 2013; Goodman, Bastedo, LeDuc, & Pammett, 2011; Hellweg, 2011; Jam, 2011; Lampe, Ellison, & Steinfield, 2008; Mellon & Prosser, 2017; O'Brien & Torres, 2012; Thompson & Loughheed, 2012). For instance, Bock Seggaard (2015) found that, he concluded that users of Facebook particularly politicians and electorates perceived Facebook as an apt arena for political participation online at the general level. Actually, the findings confirmed the formulated hypothesis as well as offer an answer to the related research question in the study.

In addition, This finding is congruent with the one of the postulations of uses and gratification theory which stated that individuals forming the media audiences are perceived as actively choosing and utilizing media contents when they perceive that the medium and its content will satisfy their social and psychological needs (Katz et al., 1974) Therefore, when the youth in Nigeria perceives that accessibility nature of information sharing on Facebook will satisfy their political and social information sharing needs, they are more likely to participate in politics on Facebook platform.

Furthermore, the result also confirms the notion that youth in Nigeria perceived Facebook as the powerful tool for steering political landscape in Nigeria. The researchers have noted that all the conventional political participation are consequences of online political activities on social media such a Facebook platform for political participation (Apuke, & Apollos, 2017) In fact, Chinedu-Okeke and Obi (2016) concluded that the political participation activities in Nigeria from 2015 were influenced by the way the youth perceived Facebook as a powerful medium for influencing online political activities. However, some Nigerians perceive Facebook as a powerful medium for influencing politics, but with a lot of intentional distortions in the content of information and distortion of the facts.

In summary, though, the Facebook intensity variable failed to establish a significant direct relationship with online political participation. However, the significant result of the direct relationship of Facebook usage and Facebook perception variables indicates that they are effective variables that increases the motivation of youth for participating in online politics in Nigeria

5.3.4 The Moderating Role of Political Interest

The fourth research question seeks to know if political interest moderates the relationship between Facebook usage, Facebook intensity and Facebook perception with online political participation among youth in Nigeria. The corresponding objective is to analyse the moderating role on the relationship between Facebook usage, Facebook intensity and Facebook perception.

Political participation does not take place naturally, hence, for the youth to participate in politics there must be a form of interest to participate. Political interest is hypothesized as a moderator in the relationship between the exogenous variable (Facebook usage) and endogenous variables (online political participation), this is because Facebook is one of the key social media platforms of creating interest in political participation, hence, it offers an important role in facilitating political participation (Bimber, Cantijoch, Copeland, & Gibson, 2015). Similarly, Kahne, and Bowyer (2018) noted that social media is expected to increase people political interest, which in turn, can lead to political participation. Fundamentally, those who are interested about politics are more likely to participate politically.

Thus, it is proposed that political interest moderates the hypothesized relationship of Facebook cognitive usage, Facebook social integrative usage, Facebook personal integrative usage, Facebook affective usage, Facebook escapist usage, Facebook intensity and Facebook perception on online political participation, therefore, this led to the formulation of hypotheses to test the relationship respectively.

5.3.4.1 Moderating Role of Political Interest on the Relationship between Facebook Cognitive Usage and Online Political Participation

Based on the study postulation, political interest moderates the relationship between Facebook cognitive usage and online political participation. As expected, the finding, as revealed by the PLS-SEM result provide a significant moderating effect which support that political interest relationship outcome significantly enhanced the cognitive

motivation of youth in seeking information to participate in online politics on Facebook.

The above finding is consistent with other studies that found a significant moderating role of Political interest (PI) which show the impact of political interest in exerting moderating role by directing or redirecting the relationship between different variables that predict the outcome of political participation, studies such as (Bimber & Copeland, 2013; Bimber, Cantijoch, Copeland, & Gibson, 2015; Choi & Lee, 2015; Boulianne, 2011; Krueger, 2006; Leone et al., 2014). For instance, Choi and Lee (2015) found Political interest significantly moderates the link between news sharing and network heterogeneity in political participation. Similarly, Leone et al. (2014) found that political interest was found to moderate the impact of relationship between right-wing authoritarianism (RWA) and social dominance orientation (SDO) in political voting choices.

One possible reason for these findings is that by nature, youth with high in political interest involved into various political groups and political pages on Facebook due to the fact that they know the benefit they will drive by doing so (Juliet, Carlisle, & Patton, 2013). In essence, youth with high PI will be more involved in political participation online (Abdu, Mohamad, & Muda, 2017). Another possible reason could be attributed to the fact that youth that have a high view of political interest to view the importance of information seeking and interacting with friends and family.

The findings provide further insight that relationship that is anchored on interest may serve as bedrock for influencing cognitive usage of Facebook platform by the youth to enhance their online activities such as online political participation. Therefore, youth with high political interest have the belief that through information seeking in Facebook and interacting with family and friends on Facebook can make them to participate in politics. In essence, youth that are high in political participation knew the fact that their online participation in politics is enhanced as a result of their information seeking and discussing with friends on Facebook (Abdulrauf, Abdul Hamid, & Ishak, 2017; Hamid, Ishak, & Yazam, 2015). Therefore, political interest among youth is considered a vital component that can influence participation in the politics in online arena (Holt, Shehata, Strömbäck, & Ljungberg, 2013).

5.3.4.2 Moderating Role of Political Interest on the Relationship between Facebook Social Integrative Usage and Online Political Participation

The relationship between Facebook social integrative usage and online political participation of youth, was also hypothesized to be moderated by political interest. As anticipated, the result revealed that political interest significantly moderate the relationship. This particular result is in agreement with other studies that established the significant moderating role of political interest (PI) in positively directing the relationship between different political factors and political participation outcome. Studies such as (Bimber & Copeland, 2013; Bimber, Cantijoch, Copeland, & Gibson, 2015; Choi & Lee, 2015).

Additionally, the effect of Facebook social integrative usage relational outcome on online political participation is better appreciated through the moderating role of political interest. The interest in youth to socially integrate with friends and family on Facebook is better achieved by their interest in politics which will strengthen their commitment to participate in politics online via Facebook, thereby improving the participation of youth in politics.

Another possible reason could be attributed to the fact that youth that have a high view of political interest, consider the importance of interacting with friends and family. That is, youth in Nigeria that are high in political interest have the belief that through their social interaction with family and friends in which they are able to relate to the family and find something interesting to discuss with them on Facebook, they can be influenced to participate in politics. In essence, youth that are high in political participation exhibit the fact that their participation in politics is enhance as a result of their discussing with friends and Family on Facebook (Abdulrauf et al., 2017). Therefore, this finding show that political interest has significant impact in enhancing their social usage of Facebook to make them also participate in politics online.

5.3.4.3 Moderating Role of Political Interest on the Relationship between Facebook Personal Integrative Usage and Online Political Participation

This study also postulated the moderating role of political interest on the relationship between Facebook personal integrative usage and online political participation. The postulation was based on the argument that of the moderating variable of political interest is expected to lead to the enhancement of interest in the mind of youth, which

will influence their motivation of portraying their personal status and credibility which in turn will increase their involvement in political participation online. However, the study failed to support the hypothesis. Although some studies such as (Dahl, Abdelzadeh, & Sohl 2016; Bimber, Cantijoch, Copeland, & Gibson, 2015) have established a significant moderation of Political interest on political participation.

One possible explanation why political interest failed to moderate the relationship between personal integrative usage and online political participation, may be attributed to the fact that Facebook personal integrative usage is hinged on a personality issue of the variable related to youth. Even if the youth access Facebook for political participation they might be doing it for different personal reasons. Therefore political interest might not increase their involvement in political participation on Facebook. Similarly, the failure of political interest to moderate the relationship between Facebook personal integrative usage and online political participation may also be attributed to the fact that even the result of direct relationship in this study, it was revealed that there is no relationship between the predictor variable of Facebook personal integrative usage and the outcome variable of Online political participation. Therefore, failure of political interest to moderate the relationship between the Facebook personal integrative usage and online political participation may not also be a surprising result.

5.3.4.4 Moderating Role of Political Interest on the Relationship between Facebook Affective Usage and Online Political Participation

The present study established that the affective usage of Facebook, which is the desire for the attainment of pleasure and entertainment experiences on Facebook has relationship and influenced on the online political participation of youth. As a result, it was hypothesised that political interest could also increase the effect of the relationship. Conversely, the result failed to support the moderation postulation despite the established positive relationship between Facebook affective usages and online political participation. As to the possibility of why political interest failed to moderate the relationship between Facebook affective usage and youth online political participation, it may be ascribed to the fact that youth are already having prior motivation for participating in politics on Facebook and their participation is based on their information and social relation with other youth on Facebook and not because of their political interest (Yang & DeHart, 2016; Potgieter, 2013). Therefore, political interest may not increase their political participation.

Similarly, the failure of the political interest moderate the relationship, may be seen from the perspective that, the conscious quest of the Nigerian youth to derive entertainment from Facebook usage, may lead them to unconsciously participate in politics on Facebook, However, such participation may be devoid of any interest in politics, this argument was hinged on the fact, youth in Nigeria are descanted with the present political dispensation in the country.

Another possible reason of on why political interest failed to moderate the relationship between Facebook affective usage and online political participation, may be as a result that, the youth did not appreciate the political interest variable as sufficient in influencing or lead to increment of any relation of their entertainment motive of using Facebook and their online political participation. Thus, their activities of political participation is purely predicated to their entertainment purposes, devoid of any prior political interest in the participation. Therefore, in this respect, it was obvious why political interest did not moderate the relationship.

5.4.4.5 Moderating Role of Political Interest on the Relationship between Facebook Escapist Usage and Online Political Participation

The outcome of this study confirm that youth in Nigeria employ the usage of Facebook to escape from problems of life and to forget about them. This motive of escaping from problem has influence in motivating them to also participate in political activities online. In addition, the study also tested the role of political interest in moderating the relationship between Facebook escapist usage and online political participation. Therefore, the statement suggests that youth that have high agreement on their usage of Facebook to escape from the boredom of life, and to feel relaxed by being in a different world will participate more in online politics as a result of their interest in politics. Again, contrary to the expectation of the statement, the hypothesis was not supported.

Although some studies (Chang, 2018; Hoffmann, et al., 2017) have established a significant moderation among Facebook escapism usage, political interest and online

political participation. For example, the finding of the study, revealed that Facebook usage, which is geared to the uses geared to disruption or escaping from can increase online political participation. This is referred to as ‘accidental online political participation’ where users visit the Facebook to find diversion and entertainment, but then get persuaded into some form of political participation, especially if controlled for political interest (Hoffmann, et al, 2017). However, the finding of this study is also in congruence to the finding of Russo and Stattin (2017), they also found no significant relation of political interest in youth’s political stability and political participation at different stages of life. Thus, the findings of this study add to an emerging line of research on moderation role of political interest on thought-provoking effects of different motivations of Facebook usages in political participation.

Lastly, the analysis of the moderation relationships between the exogenous variable and endogenous variable achieved in this study has brought a new insight on the empirical examination of political interest as a driving factor of political participation study over time.

5.3.4.6 Moderating Role of Political Interest on the Relationship between Facebook Intensity and Online Political Participation

The finding of this study confirmed that the intensity of the attachment of individual to the friends on Facebook has no relationship to the political participation of that individual. This is why the study, hypothesized that political interest moderates the relationship between Facebook intensity and online political participation. However, the result of the moderation test failed to support the hypothesis, this means political

has no effect in increasing the insignificant relationship between Facebook intensity and online political participation.

However, the result is not unexpected given the fact that the study also failed to establish a significant relationship between Facebook intensity and online political participation. Additionally, the inability of the political interest to moderate the relationship may be attributed to the fact that extent of developing an emotional attachment of youth to the Facebook platform did not influence their intensity on eagerness to be on Facebook or become excited when on Facebook. Thus, their Facebook intensity did not influence their political participation, hence the political interest is not likely to moderate the relationship between the Facebook intensity and online political participation.

5.3.4.7 Moderating Role of Political Interest on the Relationship between Facebook Perception and Online Political Participation

Another moderation in this study, is the statement that political interest moderates the relationship between Facebook perception and online political participation. The result revealed positive and significant moderating effect of political interest on the relationships between Facebook perception and online political participation. The above finding is consistent with other studies that found the significant moderating role of Political interest and forms of political participation activities (Cohen, Tsfat, & Sheafer, 2008; Hellweg, 2011; Hoffman, Jones, & Young, 2013; Pap, Ham, & Bilandžić, 2018). For instance, in a recent study, Pap, Ham, and Bilandžić (2018) found political interest interact with political news sharing in predicting of political

activities. Similarly, Richardson, Nash, and King (2017) found that political interest strengthens the relationship between political talk on social media and voting among people with lower voting interest. In addition, they found political interest to moderate the relationship between acts of political working and donation to a party with the political participation act of voting.

This result is found among people with high political interest than those with low political interest. Therefore, this finding established that interest in politics enhances the youth's experience and expectation of Facebook in online political participation. This indicates that the youth have positive belief that Facebook platform has adequate features and easy access to sharing information, which makes it an effective platform that enhances political participation among youth in Nigeria. In summary, the result confirmed that Nigerian youth accepted Facebook platform to be an established arena for participating in different forms of political activities in Nigeria

5.4 Implications of the Study

The need for this study stemmed by a research gap from previous studies, both in terms of theoretical and empirical gaps identified in previous literatures. The findings from the present research have implications on knowledge of theories, methodology and practices. These implications were made based on the research findings and discussions from the previous sections. The essence is to show how the study relates to the theories and how it can be applied by concerned parties. The implications are discussed in the following sections theoretical and practical and methodological.

5.4.1 Theoretical Implication

The study contributes to the literature by statistically modelling the relationship between Facebook usage, Facebook intensity, Facebook perception and political interest with online political participation. In particular, these relationships are modelled specifically from the viewpoint of the Facebook platform. The study also contributed to the literature by integrating the uses and gratification theory dimensions (Kate et al 973), Facebook intensity, Facebook perception and online political participation to explain the performance of political participation among youth in Nigeria. Specifically, the study contributed to the literature stream with the understanding of how some important Facebook usage dimensions of cognitive usage, social integrative usage, personal integrative usage, affective usage and escapist usage, and Facebook perception dimensions of privacy, features, sharing information and accessibility influences online political participation.

The study also provides further empirical evidence in relation to the uses and gratification theory and Facebook, unlike in the past, where uses and gratification theory is applied in the literature to the individual's use of traditional or mainstream media, such as newspaper and radio for receiving information and knowledge about politics, without ample opportunity of interactivity between political actors and participants in which the effects of all these activities, is in offline situation. Hence this study extends the propositions of uses and gratification from an offline situation of traditional media to online situation, particularly in relation to social media platform of Facebook. As a result, uses and gratification theory was underpinned for investigating

a broad range of online political participation of youth. Therefore, this study provided an extension in literature that will adequately capture the essence of the uses and gratification theory and its application on politics, especially in this digital era.

Additionally, this study has contributed to the literature by empirically examining the influence of Facebook usage (i.e. Facebook cognitive usage, Facebook social integrative usage, Facebook personal integrative usage, Facebook affective usage, and Facebook escapist usage), Facebook intensity and Facebook perception in the context of the Nigerian political environment. Prior to this, most of the studies on Facebook use, Facebook intensity and Facebook perception are in the context of developed western democracies (Mohammed, 2013), thus, requiring the need also for empirical examination of the underlying effect of these existing theories such as uses and gratification theory and civic voluntarism model in the context of emerging democracies like Nigeria, very few empirical studies were reported on Facebook use for political participation in Nigeria (Abdulrauf et al., 2017). Therefore, examining a theoretical framework of youth and their usage and perception on political participation in Nigeria enriches remarkable understandings of the literature. Consequently, the findings of this research submit the fact that what has been depicted to relate in western democracies based theories may not necessarily be relevant to other emerging democracies, such as Nigeria.

Another, theoretical implication of the study is reflected in the submissions of scholars in the review section of this study, where they established that in studying social media

causal effect process, there is a need for a careful consideration of antecedent, mediation and consequence (Rubin, 1993). Also, coupled with David's (2013) recommendation for the need of introduction of fresh variables that will suit the generation of youth on social media, in studying youth political participation, which are different from the variables that measure offline political activities. Thus, the new measurements that are introduced in this study are based on Facebook and, eventually, a significant relationships were found which enhances the literature about Facebook and online politics

Furthermore, another theoretical implication is made on the significant moderation role of political interest in this study as it has provided empirical evidence for its role in moderating the relationships the exogenous and the endogenous variables. In essence Political interest does have a role to play in online political participation among youth in Nigeria. This makes it an important variable that can explain online political participation of youth. This has further enriched the literature on political interest in the study of politics.

Likewise, this present study contributed to the Facebook use and online political participation literature by reducing the mixed results reported by previous studies (Baumgartner & Morris 2009), this study has empirically tested and established the moderating effect of political interest on the relationship between Facebook cognitive usage, Facebook social integrative usage, Facebook perception, and online political participation. The study established a significant interaction of political interest effect

on the relationship between the Facebook use and Facebook perception on online political participation. Hence, the study recommended the need for regulatory agencies to enact policies that will facilitate easy access to social media among youth, this will encourage them to participate more in politics. Thus, this study provides theoretical support to the Facebook use and online political participation literature stream on the moderating power of political interest in strengthening the efficacy of usage of Facebook, perception of Facebook by the youth and their participation in politics. Lastly, the study has enriched the obtainable body of literature on the gender differences in various uses of social media, specifically Facebook which is the most popular social media platforms.

5.4.2 Practical Implication

The result of this study paves way for some practical implication with regards to online political participation of youth in Nigeria in the following ways:

The findings of this study that show a substantial level of Nigerian youth participate in politics, points to the fact that they are vital instrument that can be used by government in instituting governmental policies within the citizenry. Similarly the youth can also be used to enrich the direction of political organization and political parties in the context of developed and developing nations for the pursuit of strategic campaign objectives

The finding of this study that show a positive perception of youth towards Facebook is an indication that youth are apparently an essential instrument for supporting and

enhancing political parties and government in their quest for strategic support to their campaign objectives or governmental policies (Borah, 2016; Masiha et al., 2018; Vonderschmitt, 2012).

Secondly, the result of this study established that Facebook usage by the youth, youth positive perception of Facebook for political participation, and interest in politics are important factors that can increase youth participation in politics. Therefore, government, stake holders and policy makers can make considerable effort to encourage political participation by using Facebook to improve political interest of youth. It can also use the Facebook for political dissemination of information, this is because by creating and instilling political interest in the mind of the youth, Nigerian government can enable them to participate more in politics, which will eventually enable the government to reach them easily with policy and programmes for the benefit of the whole society. The implication is that the youth are the key segment of a society that have the ability of becoming the leaders of tomorrow that will champion the socio-political activities of society through participation.

Thirdly, This study has established that Nigeria is the third African country with the highest subscription of Facebook with 17 million subscribers (InternetWorldStats, 2018). Therefore, a huge growing number of youth are active subscribers of Facebook and consistent visitors of the Facebook, therefore, this practically make the youth promising audience for government official political figures, political parties political candidate and all stakeholders in political activities.

Fourthly, this finding of this study that revealed a positive perception of youth have about Facebook which has the political implication of showing government and policy makers such as Nigerian Government the active and full presence of youth on social media such as Facebook, this will encourage the government to use Facebook forum for dissemination of information and creating awareness about different governmental policies and youth programmer empowerments. For example, the youth Npower programme is a political empowerment initiative program on Facebook.

Fifthly, the finding of this study shows how youth utilize FB for political participation activities, a practical implication of this finding portrays how Facebook platform will be used as a youth integration arena for organizing different institutional and non-institutional political activities that may have direct positive or negative effect on the democratic leadership of any government. For example the youth in Nigeria have utilize Facebook to participate in political protest e.g. “Occupy Nigeria Protest” (Chiluwa, 2015) and the current campaign agitation titled “Not too young to Run” by the youth in Nigeria. This is a pointer to the practical implication of how the result of this study will make an impact on the policies of Nigerian government as a result of youth’s Facebook usage for political participation.

Again, the result of this study has implication on Nigerian government in general and in particular the National Communication Commission (NCC), the regulatory body of all social media activities in Nigeria, by providing them with an empirical document on Nigerian youth political activities on social media, this will guide the commission in its bid to enact a regulatory law for curbing the excesses of posting and sharing

political and social fake news and hate speeches which has become rampant on social media in Nigeria.

The implication of the finding will also impact on how the political landscape and the direction of the democratic governance will be highly influenced by the youth political participation in social media such as Facebook, to the extent of that democratic government of Nigeria has appreciated the impact in entrenching democratic in Nigeria.

Similarly, the result of this study has implication on showing how an election umpire of countries, such as Independent National Electoral Commission of Nigeria (INEC) can recognized the impact of social media such as Facebook in enhancement of political and election activities and it how can be utilize Facebook for creating awareness among youth about using social media for display of voter registration display of voters registration and other activities about political participation online.

Having established the significant influence of perception of Facebook by the youth, political parties and political officials, should endeavour to explore its utmost advantage of this positive perception through utilization youth to fully participate in their online political campaigns and online voting.

5.4.3 Methodological Implication

This study has demonstrated the relevance of adopting survey using quantitative methods in social media and political participation study. The study findings of a significant relationship between independent and dependent variables of a self-report and real-life construct makes it more original than the experimented and hypothetical issues which other studies used as the basis for their studies (Cobb, 2000). The generated instrument has increased the range of measuring items that are available for uses and gratifications. The acceptable validity and reliability values of the instrument reinforce their suitability for adaption and adoption in other studies and other context. Secondly, the study variable were medium specific measures. Specifically, this study assessed the UGT measures and online political participation based on medium specific measures as recommended by David (2013). Therefore, all variables in this study were measured from the perspective of Facebook, based on the fact that Facebook has been identified to be the most popularly used social media platforms for political participation (Yannis Theocharis & Lowe, 2015).

Additionally, in measuring Facebook intensity, this study combined measures previously used by other studies into one measure, Hence, attachment to Facebook friends and emotional connection with Facebook site which were previously measured Facebook use in previous studies, were integrated to measure Facebook intensity in this study. Similarly, the measure of political interest was also incorporated into the study framework of the study instruments, afterwards, a reliability and exploratory factor analysis was conducted, after a pilot study as reported in chapter three. Thereafter the method yielded a fresh framework with variables suitable for collecting data for a

model of the relationship between Facebook use and online political participation. Thus, this research contributes to the body of literature by methodologically modifying some measurement scale of certain constructs in different research context which essentially were tested in a new different context which is Nigeria.

5.4.4 Limitation of the Study

Although, the study objectives and findings are achieved, as in every empirical research, this study is not without limitations. First limitation is from its design, because of the utilization of cross-sectional survey approach, in which responses were taken at a single point in time, with a single instrument. This design may not enable researchers to prove causal relationships between the study variables from the population over a long period of time (Sekaran & Bougie, 2010). Thus, the type of data collection in cross sectional approach essentially provides a fixed perspective on the relationship between Facebook use and online political participation.

Secondly, the online political participation among youth were measured using a self-report measure which may be associated with social desirability bias or CMV (Grimm, 2010; Podsakoff et al., 2003). Although, an effort was made to ensure the reduction of CMV and to overcome the limitation in the study by ensuring the respondent's privacy and by assuring them that the information provided would be kept confidential (Grimm, 2010), and also Harman's one-factor tests was conducted (Podsakoff et al., 2003) and the result proved that CMV does not seem to be a serious problem in the study. Consequently, the possibility of limitation in the way the respondents might have

under-reported or over-reported their Facebook use for online political participation on the survey questionnaires may not be disregarded.

Thirdly, the finding of the study, which indicated an R-squared of 78% of the total variance of online political participation, show that although the research model was able to explain 78% of the total variance of online political participation. Which is a substantial value in social science research (Chin, 1981), it also means that the remaining 22% could be explained by other factors not included in this research.

Fourthly, the study has not been able to establish a direct relationship between Facebook intensity and online political participation. However, it did not adapted the measure as a uni-dimensional construct, rather, it adapted the measures as a multi-dimensional construct in line with (de Vries & Kühne, 2015; Orosz, Tóth-Király, & Bóthe, 2015). Perhaps, the study recommended that adapting Facebook intensity as a uni-dimensional construct, may provide evidence of positive relationships in future research.

Lastly, the study has tested the moderating effect of political interest, however, some of the relationships hypothesized in the moderation are not found to be significant. Specifically, Political interest does not moderate the relationship between Facebook intensity and online political participation on Facebook. Also, political interest does not moderate the relationship between Facebook affective usage and online political participation. Again, political interest does not moderate the relationship between Facebook personal integrative usage and online political participation.

5.4.5 Suggestion for Future Research

Given the above mentioned limitations, the study would recommend some suggestion for a number of possible future studies lines. First, the study recommended for a longitudinal survey research approach which could reveal the attitude of youth on online political participation for over a long period, it is hoped this approach will enable the utilization of this study constructs at a different interval of time. This will confirm the findings of this study and enhance the utility of the theoretical construct at a different point in time for the more generalizability of the research model.

Additionally, different measure other than self-report measure could be used to assess the online political participation of youth on Facebook. Perhaps, a content analysis measure can be used to examine the Facebook accounts of users to find out the online political activities they have carried out in a period of time, this could reveal a wider perspective of their political participation on Facebook.

Also, for the fact that, the research model was only able to explain 41% of the total variance of online political participation. A Future line of study may consider other factors that could also influence the youth motivation to participate in politics on Facebook. Possibly, researcher may explore the influence of political efficacy, political knowledge, political trust, in increasing the relationship between different predictors of political participation and online political participation on Facebook.

Again, since political interest does not moderate the relationship between some exogenous variables and endogenous variable and online political participation, For

example, the relationship between exogenous variable of Facebook intensity and endogenous variable of online political participation, it can be introduced as a mediator, (Piumatti, Magistro, Zecca, & Esliger, 2018). It is expected that by doing so, it could provide a significant result.

5.4.6 Conclusion

The current prevailing democratic change in Nigeria and given the widespread use of Facebook by the youth in the political arena of the country, signified the motivation of exploring this research. In the whole, the study was able to provide empirical evidence and confirm the extent which the exogenous and endogenous variable relate one and the other. It proves that one of the major determinant for explaining online political participation of youth is their Facebook usage and their perception of Facebook. In addition to the considerable result of statistical mean level of political participation among the youth in Nigeria. Furthermore, political interest moderates the relationship between the exogenous and endogenous variable in some cases but not in others. From the fourteen hypothesized direct and moderating relationships, the path model examination shows that eight of them were found to be significant, six were not found significant. Also among the four of the hypothesized statements for significant differences, only one hypothesis was significant.

The result of the study lends support to the theoretical notion of the relationship of Facebook use and online political participation. The limitation to the finding have been highlighted for future line of study. In spite of its limitations, the study has lent back to the suitability of applying of uses and gratification theory to understand the realities

of Facebook use and the applying of civic voluntarism model for the understanding of the realities of political participation of citizens today. The incorporation of political interest as moderating variable is among the key contribution to the body of knowledge on social media and political study.

Also, this study makes a contribution to instrument development for measuring the relationship of Facebook use and political participation. It provides a contribution to the ongoing search for policy formulation and regulatory direction the political participation environment in Nigeria. The result of this study provides the basis for the place of social media platform of Facebook and its potentiality for maximizing and providing an environment for the youth participation in the political arena.

Every society aspires to have a smooth political landscape that will engender its development. In the present information and technology communicated world, the societal hopes are anchored on the capacity of citizens to participate and express them in the online environment. Social media platforms such as Facebook provides citizen to become participators in their own political governance, this in particular, makes the youth effective and less destructive agent of political change. Failure of government to offer the youth the opportunity to participate in political governance is tantamount to undermining societal freedom of expression and development.

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Appendix A
Research Questionnaire



**Awang Had Salleh
Graduate School
of Arts And Sciences**

Universiti Utara Malaysia

SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE

Dear respondent

I am a Doctoral student of Communication at School of Multimedia Technology and Communication in Universiti Utara Malaysia. I am seeking your cooperation to respond to the attached survey questions on **“Facebook Use and Online Political Participation among Youth in Nigeria: The Moderating role of political Interest.**

This survey is part of the University requirement for the completion of my thesis. The questionnaire will take you about 15-20 minutes to complete. Please, kindly follow the instructions provided in the questionnaire.

I humbly request you to fill this questionnaire as truthful as you can. Please, be assured that all information provided will be treated with utmost confidentiality and strictly for academic purposes

Thank you for your time and participation.

For further enquiries, please you may contact any of the following:

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Section A. Facebook Usage

Please indicate in your opinion the extent to which you agree with each of the following statement as your motives and needs for using Facebook. Please circle the appropriate answer.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Dis-Agree
5	4	3	2	1

S/N	Statement	SA	A	N	D	SD
My	My motive in Facebook usage is because I want to,					
FBU1	... keep up with current political issues	5	4	3	2	1
FBU2	... get information about activities of government officials	5	4	3	2	1
FBU3	... confirm political information from different sources	5	4	3	2	1
FBU4	... learn about academic issues	5	4	3	2	1
FBU5	... be entertained	5	4	3	2	1
FBU6	... have some fun	5	4	3	2	1
FBU7	... be happy	5	4	3	2	1
FBU8	... Just feel like browsing Facebook.	5	4	3	2	1
FBU9	... find something interesting to talk to my family and friends about	5	4	3	2	1
FBU10	... find something interesting to use in starting a political conversation	5	4	3	2	1
FBU11	... present my own political viewpoints to other people	5	4	3	2	1
FBU12	... influence others on what to do	5	4	3	2	1
FBU13	... see the way my friends present issues on Facebook	5	4	3	2	1
FBU14	... familiar with political interaction on Facebook	5	4	3	2	1
FBU15	... compare my political ideas with what people write on Facebook	5	4	3	2	1
FBU16	... learn about political issues affecting people like me	5	4	3	2	1
FBU17	...pass time when I am bored	5	4	3	2	1
FBU18	... relax	5	4	3	2	1
FBU19	... forget about my problems	5	4	3	2	1
FBU20Be doing something when I have nothing better to do	5	4	3	2	1

Section B: Facebook Intensity

i) Attachment to Facebook Friends

Please indicate in your opinion the extent to which you agree with each of the following about your attachment and interaction with network of friends on Facebook which makes you have a wide range of political information and viewpoint.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Dis-Agree					
5	4	3	2	1					
S/N	Statement				SA	A	N	D	SD
I use Facebook, ...									
FBI 1	...in connecting with friends I otherwise would have lost contact with.				5	4	3	2	1
FBI 2	... in reconnecting with friends I have already lost contact with.				5	4	3	2	1
FBI 3	... in finding friends I haven't seen for a while.				5	4	3	2	1
FBI 4	... to accept friends request				5	4	3	2	1
FBI 5	... in maintaining relationships with friends I may not get to see very often				5	4	3	2	1
FBI 6	... in sending information to friends for events				5	4	3	2	1
FBI 7	... in joining groups for friendship				5	4	3	2	1
FBI 8	... in communicating with friends whom we share the same views				5	4	3	2	1
FBI 9	... in finding friends online				5	4	3	2	1
FBI10	... in contacting new people online				5	4	3	2	1
FBI11	... in following activities of Facebook friends.				5	4	3	2	1
FBI12	...in seeing the profile pages of other unknown people.				5	4	3	2	1
FBI13	... in checking profile of new people for sending friendship request.				5	4	3	2	1

ii Emotional Connection to Facebook

Please indicate in your opinion the extent to which you agree with each of the following about your emotional connection to Facebook which makes you have a wide range of political information and viewpoint.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Dis-Agree
5	4	3	2	1

S/N	Statement	SA	A	N	D	SD
FBI14	Sometimes I find myself staying longer than necessary on Facebook	5	4	3	2	1
FBI15	Sometimes I feel excited when using Facebook than when spending time with my friends	5	4	3	2	1
FBI16	Sometimes people complained to me about the amount of time I spend on Facebook	5	4	3	2	1
FBI17	Sometimes my assignment suffers because of the amount of time I stay connected to Facebook.	5	4	3	2	1
FBI18	Sometimes I check Facebook first, before something else that I need to do.	5	4	3	2	1
FBI19	Sometimes I complained when I am asked about my activities on Facebook.	5	4	3	2	1
FBI20	Sometimes I find good thinking whenever I am using Facebook	5	4	3	2	1
FBI21	Sometimes I find myself excited to be on Facebook again	5	4	3	2	1
FBI22	Sometimes I fear that life without the Facebook would be boring	5	4	3	2	1
FBI23	Sometimes I shout if someone disturb me while I am on Facebook.	5	4	3	2	1
FBI24	Sometimes I sleep late due to staying late-night on Facebook.	5	4	3	2	1
FBI25	Sometimes I feel anxious with the thought of browsing Facebook when I am offline.	5	4	3	2	1
FBI26	Sometimes I give excuse to friends while I am on Facebook.	5	4	3	2	1
FBI27	Sometimes I fail in trying to cut down the amount of time I spend on Facebook.	5	4	3	2	1
FBI28	Sometimes I try to hide how long I have been on Facebook.	5	4	3	2	1
FBI29	Sometimes I use Facebook to forget about other problems in my life.	5	4	3	2	1

Section C: Facebook Perception

Please indicate in your opinion the extent to which you agree with each of the following about your perception of Facebook site in term of its features; accessibility; information sharing nature and maintenance of user's privacy

Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Dis-Agree
5	4	3	2	1

S/N	Statement	SA	A	N	D	SD
FBP1	I feel secure while sharing information on Facebook	5	4	3	2	1
FBP2	I consider Facebook quite responsible about the information of what user's share	5	4	3	2	1
FBP3	I believe that Facebook has strong privacy system	5	4	3	2	1
FBP4	Facebook provides confidentiality regarding my personal information to others	5	4	3	2	1
FBP5	I feel comfortable to providing my personal information in Facebook	5	4	3	2	1
FBP6	I believe Facebook has varieties of features e.g sharing picture, for the user than other sites	5	4	3	2	1
FBP7	I believe I can easily upload a post on Facebook than other sites	5	4	3	2	1
FBP8	I can easily share a post on Facebook page than other social media sites	5	4	3	2	1
FBP9	I can easily like a post on Facebook page than other sites	5	4	3	2	1
FBP10	I think Facebook has more attractive features than other sites	5	4	3	2	1
FBP11	I consider sharing information on Facebook is part of my life	5	4	3	2	1
FBP12	I can share what I have in mind on Facebook	5	4	3	2	1
FBP13	I believe that sharing information on Facebook helps me in getting more friends	5	4	3	2	1
FBP14	I believe that Facebook is the place to share information with my friends	5	4	3	2	1
FBP15	Facebook is easy to access	5	4	3	2	1
FBP16	Ensuring fast accessibility of Facebook is important to me	5	4	3	2	1
FBP17	Facebook is easily accessible than other social media sites					

SECTION D: ONLINE POLITICAL PARTICIPATION ON FACEBOOK

Please indicate in your opinion the extent to which you agree with each of the following statements about activities that you carry out on Facebook such as posting and sharing political information, liking or commenting on political issues *Please circle the appropriate answer*

Always	Often	Sometimes	Rarely	Never				
5	4	3	2	1				
S/N	Statement			A	O	S	R	N
	How frequently do you perform the following online political activities							
OPP1	Discussing political information on Facebook with my friends			5	4	3	2	1
OPP2	Sharing political information on Facebook			5	4	3	2	1
OPP3	Posting a photo about politics on Facebook			5	4	3	2	1
OPP4	Posting a video about politics on Facebook			5	4	3	2	1
OPP5	Posting a link about politics on Facebook			5	4	3	2	1
OPP6	Sharing a video about politics on Facebook			5	4	3	2	1
OPP7	Sharing a photo about politics on Facebook			5	4	3	2	1
OPP8	Sharing a political information link on Facebook			5	4	3	2	1
OPP9	Making statement on Facebook about a political discussion			5	4	3	2	1
OPP10	Reading topics related to politics in online newspapers on Facebook			5	4	3	2	1
OPP11	Browsing to find political videos on Facebook			5	4	3	2	1
OPP12	Joining an online political protest on Facebook			5	4	3	2	1
OPP13	Joining a political group on Facebook			5	4	3	2	1
OPP14	Participating in online political campaign on Facebook			5	4	3	2	1
OPP15	Liking a political candidates' page on Facebook			5	4	3	2	1
OPP16	Posting comments in group discussion related to politics on Facebook			5	4	3	2	1
OPP17	Soliciting for donation to political candidates			5	4	3	2	1

Always		Often	Sometimes	Rarely	Never				
5		4	3	2	1				
OPP18	Share political information on Facebook				5	4	3	2	1
OPP19	Post a photo about politics on Facebook				5	4	3	2	1
OPP20	Post a video about politics on Facebook				5	4	3	2	1
OPP21	Share a photo about politics on Facebook				5	4	3	2	1
OPP22	Share a video about politics on Facebook				5	4	3	2	1
OPP23	Make statement on Facebook about political discussion				5	4	3	2	1
OPP24	Join an online protest on Facebook				5	4	3	2	1
OPP25	Join a political group on Facebook				5	4	3	2	1
OPP26	Participate in political campaign on Facebook				5	4	3	2	1
OPP27	Post comments in group discussion related to politics on Facebook				5	4	3	2	1



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SECTION E: POLITICAL INTEREST

<i>Please indicate in your opinion what encourage your interest and makes you want to participate in politics on Facebook. Please circle the appropriate ans</i>						
Strongly-Disagree		Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Dis-Agree	
S/N	Statement	SA	D	N	A	SD
PI 1	Most of my friends on Facebook are interested in politics	1	2	3	4	5
PI2	I have time to worry about politics	1	2	3	4	5
PI3	I often discuss politics with my friends on Facebook	1	2	3	4	5
PI4	Politics makes a lot difference to my friends on Facebook	1	2	3	4	5
PI5	Politics has an impact on anything I do	1	2	3	4	5
PI6	I am very interested in politics	1	2	3	4	5
PI7	I know about politics than most of my Facebook friends	1	2	3	4	5
PI8	Politics is easy for me to understand	1	2	3	4	5



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SECTION A BASIC DEMOGRAPHICS

1. Age F

(a) 15-19 years ☐

(b) 20-24 years ☐

(c) 25-29 years ☐

(d) 30-35 years ☐

2. Gender

(a) Male ☐

(b) Female ☐

3. Which faculty do you belong to?

(a) Faculty of Arts ☐

(b) Faculty of Science ☐

(c) Faculty of social & Management Science ☐

(d) Faculty of Social & Pharmaceutical Science ☐

(e) Faculty of Agriculture & Environmental Science ☐

4. Do you have a Facebook account?

Yes ☐ No ☐

5. How many Facebook friends do you have?

- (a) 100 or less ☐
- (b) Between 101–300 ☐
- (c) Between 301–500 ☐
- (d) 501 friends or more ☐

6. How long do you spend on Facebook per week?

- (a) Less than 3 hours ☐
- (b) 3- 6 hours ☐
- (c) 7- 10hours ☐
- (d) 11- 14 hours ☐
- (e) More than 14 hours ☐

7. How many Facebook groups do you belong to

- (a) Less than 10 groups ☐
- (b) 20 groups ☐
- (c) 30 groups ☐
- (d) and above ☐



Thank you for completing the questionnaire

Appendix B

Computation of scores of Content Validity of the Study Constructs items representativeness as rated by 11 experts for content validity

CVI of Facebook Usage items

	Items	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	CVI
1	FBU 1	2	4	4	3	3	4	4	3	2	4	4	9/11= .82
2	FBU 2	3	3	3	4	4	3	4	3	2	4	3	10/11= .91
3	FBU 3	3	4	3	4	2	4	4	3	3	4	3	10/11= .91
4	FBU 4	3	3	4	4	2	3	4	3	3	3	3	10/11= .91
5	FBU 5	3	3	3	4	2	4	2	3	3	4	3	9/11= .82
6	FBU 6	3	4	3	4	4	3	2	3	3	3	3	10/11= .91
7	FBU 7	3	4	3	4	3	3	2	3	2	3	3	9/11= .82
8	FBU 8	3	4	3	4	1	2	2	3	2	3	3	7/11= .64
9	FBU 9	3	4	3	4	3	3	3	3	2	4	3	9/11= .82
10	FBU 10	2	4	3	4	4	4	4	3	3	4	2	9/11= .82
11	FBU 11	2	3	3	4	4	3	4	3	2	4	3	9/11= .82
12	FBU 12	2	4	3	4	1	3	4	3	2	4	3	8/11= .73
13	FBU 13	3	4	3	4	1	3	3	3	3	4	3	9/11= .82
14	FBU 14	3	4	3	4	3	3	4	2	3	3	2	9/11= .82
15	FBU 15	2	3	4	4	4	4	4	3	4	4	3	9/11= .82
16	FBU 16	3	4	4	4	4	3	4	3	4	2	3	9/11= .82
17	FBU 17	3	4	3	4	4	4	3	3	3	2	2	9/11= .82
18	FBU 18	2	4	3	4	1	2	3	3	3	4	3	8/11= .73
19	FBU 19	3	4	3	4	4	3	1	3	2	4	3	9/11= .82
20	FBU 20	3	—	4	4	4	3	2	3	3	3	3	9/11= .82

CVI of Facebook Intensity items

	Items	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	CVI
1	FBI 1	3	3	4	4	3	4	4	3	3	4	2	10/11= .91
2	FBI 2	3	4	3	4	4	4	3	3	3	4	2	10/11= .91
3	FBI 3	3	4	4	4	4	3	4	3	3	4	3	11/11= 1
4	FBI 4	3	4	4	3	2	4	4	3	3	4	2	9/11= .82
5	FBI 5	3	3	3	3	4	3	3	3	2	4	2	9/11= .82
6	FBI 6	3	4	4	4	4	4	2	3	4	4	2	9/11= .82
7	FBI 7	3	4	3	4	4	4	2	3	4	4	2	9/11= .82
8	FBI 8	2	4	4	3	4	3	4	3	2	3	2	8/11= .73
9	FBI 9	3	4	4	3	4	3	2	3	3	4	2	9/11= .82
10	FBI 10	4	3	4	-	3	4	3	3	3	4	2	9/11= .82
11	FBI 11	2	4	3	4	2	3	4	3	3	4	2	8/11= .73
12	FBI 12	3	3	3	4	2	3	4	3	3	4	2	9/11= .82
13	FBI 13	3	4	4	4	2	4	4	3	3	4	1	9/11= .82

14	FBI 14	3	-	4	4	3	4	4	3	4	4	1	9/11= .82
15	FBI 15	4	3	2	4	3	3	3	3	4	3	-	9/11= .82
16	FBI 16	3	4	4	3	4	2	4	3	4	4	-	9/11= .82
17	FBI 17	3	3	3	4	4	2	4	3	3	4	2	9/11= .82
18	FBI 18	3	4	4	4	4	2	4	3	3	4	2	9/11= .82
19	FBI 19	2	3	4	4	4	3	4	3	4	4	2	9/11= .82
20	FBI 20	3	4	3	4	3	4	4	3	2	3	1	9/11= .82
21	FBI 21	3	3	3	4	3	4	4	3	3	4	2	10/11=.91
22	FBI 22	4	3	3	4	3	2	4	3	3	4	2	9/11= .82
23	FBI 23	3	4	3	4	4	3	4	3	3	4	2	10/11= .91
24	FBI 24	4	3	4	3	4	4	3	3	3	4	2	10/11= .91
25	FBI 25	2	4	3	4	4	3	4	3	3	4	2	9/11= .82
26	FBI 26	3	4	4	4	4	3	4	3	2	4	2	9/11= .82
27	FBI 27	3	4	4	4	4	3	4	3	3	2	2	9/11= .82
28	FBI 28	4	4	3	4	2	4	4	3	3	4	2	9/11= .82
29	FBI 29	2	4	4	4	3	4	4	3	4	4	2	10/11= .91

CVI of Facebook Perception items

	Items	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	CVI
1	FBP 1	3	3	3	4	4	3	2	3	3	3	2	9/11= .82
2	FBP 2	3	3	4	4	4	3	3	3	3	4	2	10/11= .91
3	FBP 3	3	2	4	4	4	3	3	3	3	4	2	9/11= .82
4	FBP 4	2	4	4	4	4	4	3	3	4	3	1	9/11= .82
5	FBP 5	4	3	3	4	4	3	3	3	2	4	2	9/11= .82
6	FBP 6	2	3	4	4	4	3	3	3	3	3	1	9/11= .82
7	FBP 7	3	4	3	4	4	4	3	3	4	4	2	10/11= .91
8	FBP 8	3	4	4	4	4	4	4	3	4	4	2	10/11= .91
9	FBP 9	3	—	3	4	4	3	4	3	3	4	-	9/11= .82
10	FBP 10	3	4	4	4	4	3	3	3	2	4	1	9/11= .82
11	FBP 11	3	4	4	4	4	3	4	3	4	2	1	9/11= .82
12	FBP 12	3	4	4	4	4	4	4	3	4	2	2	9/11= .82
13	FBP 13	3	4	4	4	4	2	4	3	3	4	2	9/11=.82
14	FBP 14	3	4	4	4	4	4	4	3	3	3	2	10/11= .91
15	FBP 15	3	4	4	4	4	3	4	3	3	2	1	9/11=.82
16	FBP 16	3	—	3	4	4	3	4	3	2	3	2	8/11= .73
17	FBP 17	3	4	4	4	4	-	4	3	3	3	2	9/11= .82

CVI of Online Political Perception (OPP) items

	Items	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	CVI
1	OPP 1	3	3	4	4	4	4	4	3	3	4	2	10/11=.91
2	OPP 2	3	4	4	4	4	3	4	3	3	4	2	10/11=.91
3	OPP 3	3	3	4	4	4	4	4	3	3	4	2	10/11=.91
4	OPP 4	3	3	4	4	4	4	4	3	4	4	2	10/11=.91
5	OPP 5	3	3	4	4	4	4	4	3	4	4	2	10/11=.91
6	OPP 6	3	3	4	4	2	3	4	3	4	4	2	9/11=.82
7	OPP 7	3	3	3	4	2	4	4	3	4	4	2	9/11=.82
8	OPP 8	3	4	3	4	2	3	4	4	4	4	2	9/11=.82
9	OPP 9	3	4	3	4	4	4	4	4	3	4	2	10/11=.91
10	OPP 10	3	4	4	4	4	4	4	3	4	4	2	10/11=.91
11	OPP 11	3	4	4	4	4	3	4	4	3	4	2	10/11=.91
12	OPP 12	3	4	4	4	4	3	4	3	3	4	2	10/11=.91
13	OPP 13	3	4	4	4	2	4	4	4	4	4	2	9/11=.82
14	OPP 14	3	4	4	4	4	4	4	3	4	4	2	10/11=.91
15	OPP 15	3	4	4	4	2	4	4	4	3	4	2	9/11=.82
16	OPP 16	3	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	3	4	2	10/11=.91
17	OPP 17	3	3	4	4	4	4	4	3	4	4	1	10/11=.91
18	OPP 18	3	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	3	4	1	10/11=.91
19	OPP 19	3	4	4	4	4	4	4	3	4	4	1	10/11=.91
20	OPP 20	3	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	3	4	1	10/11=.91
21	OPP 21	3	4	4	4	4	3	4	4	3	4	1	10/11=.91
22	OPP 22	3	—	3	4	4	3	4	4	3	4	1	9/11=.82
23	OPP 23	3	4	3	4	3	4	4	4	3	4	1	10/11=.91
24	OPP 24	4	3	4	4	4	4	4	4	3	4	1	10/11=.91
25	OPP 25	3	4	3	4	2	4	4	4	3	4	1	9/11=.82
26	OPP 26	3	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	3	4	1	10/11=.91
27	OPP 27	3	4	4	4	2	4	4	4	3	4	1	9/11=.82

CVI of Political Interest (PI) items

	Items	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	CVI
1	PI 1	4	4	4	4	4	4	3	4	3	4	2	10/11=.91
2	PI 2	2	3	4	4	4	4	4	4	2	4	2	9/11=.82
3	PI 3	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	2	4	2	9/11=.82
4	PI 4	3	3	4	4	4	4	4	4	3	4	3	10/11=.91
5	PI 5	3	3	4	4	4	4	3	4	4	4	3	10/11=.91
6	PI 6	3	3	4	4	4	4	4	4	3	4	3	11/11= 1
7	PI 7	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	2	10/11=.91
8	PI 8	3	3	4	4	4	4	4	4	2	4	2	9/11=.82

Appendix C

Reliability Analysis Result

Constructs	Item	Corrected item-total correlation	Cronbach's alpha if the item deleted	Cronbach's alpha	Sample size (N)*
Facebook Usage	FBU1	.528	.877	0.883	60
	FBU2	.490	.878		
	FBU3	.573	.876		
	FBU4	.462	.879		
	FBU5	.457	.879		
	FBU6	.556	.876		
	FBU7	.498	.878		
	FBU8	.527	.877		
	FBU9	.329	.883		
	FBU10	.472	.879		
	FBU11	.488	.878		
	FBU12	.236	.885		
	FBU13	.629	.874		
	FBU14	.521	.877		
	FBU15	.547	.876		
	FBU16	.476	.879		
	FBU17	.542	.876		
	FBU18	.652	.873		

	FBU19	.611	.874		
	FBU20	.260	.886		
Facebook Intensity	FBI 1	.101	.893	0.891	60
	FBI 2	.005	.895		
	FBI 3	.217	.891		
	FBI 4	.202	.892		
	FBI 5	.068	.894		
	FBI 6	.298	.890		
	FBI7	.379	.888		
	FBI8	.354	.889		
	FBI9	.160	.892		
	FBI10	.312	.889		
	FBI11	.397	.888		
	FBI12	.451	.887		
	FBI13	.393	.888		
	FBI14	.320	.889		
	FBI15	.622	.883		
	FBI16	.532	.885		
	FBI17	.623	.883		
	FBI18	.629	.883		
	FBI19	.573	.884		
	FBI20	.508	.886		
	FBI21	.495	.886		

	FBI22	.602	.883		
	FBI23	.471	.886		
	FBI24	.650	.882		
	FBI25	.712	.881		
	FBI26	.621	.883		
	FBI27	.575	.884		
	FBI28	.617	.883		
	FBI29	.609	.883		
Facebook	FBP 1	.609	.889	0.897	60
Perception	FBP2	.631	.889		
	FBP3	.545	.891		
	FBP4	.576	.890		
	FBP5	.428	.896		
	FBP6	.464	.894		
	FBP7	.557	.891		
	FBP8	.576	.890		
	FBP9	.672	.887		
	FBP10	.668	.887		
	FBP11	.451	.894		
	FBP12	.476	.893		
	FBP13	.504	.892		
	FBP14	.647	.887		
	FBP15	.438	.894		

	FBP16	.545	.891		
	FBP17	.617	.889		
Online Political Participation	OPP 1	.632	.912	0.917	60
	OPP2	.622	.912		
	OPP3	.698	.910		
	OPP4	.758	.909		
	OPP5	.657	.911		
	OPP6	.731	.910		
	OPP7	.692	.910		
	OPP8	.451	.915		
	OPP9	.305	.917		
	OPP10	.479	.914		
	OPP11	.186	.918		
	OPP12	.577	.913		
	OPP13	.677	.911		
	OPP14	.556	.913		
	OPP15	.676	.911		
	OPP16	.462	.915		
	OPP17	.606	.912		
	OPP18	.587	.912		
	OPP19	.373	.916		
	OPP20	.420	.915		
	OPP21	.430	.915		

	OPP22	.199	.918		
	OPP23	.310	.917		
	OPP24	.413	.915		
	OPP25	.506	.914		
	OPP26	.383	.916		
	OPP27	.311	.917		
Political Interest	PI 1	.712	.907	0.916	60
	PI2	.854	.894		
	PI3	.855	.894		
	PI4	.706	.907		
	PI5	.750	.903		
	PI6	.749	.904		
	PI7	.625	.913		
	PI8	.532	.920		

Appendix D

Factor Extraction of Latent Constructs

Factor Extraction of Facebook Usage Variable and its Items

	Factor 1	Loading 2	3	4	5
FBU6	.899				
FBU7	.897				
FBU5	.856				

FBU19	.830			
FBU18	.697			
FBU20	.692			
FBU17	.677			
FBU9		.787		
FBU8		.655		
FBU10		.621		
FBU12		.610		
FBU15			.835	
FBU16			.739	
FBU13			.587	
FBU4				.745
FBU3				.687
FBU2				.686

Factor Extraction of Facebook Intensity Variable and its Items

Factor	Loading	
	1	2
FBI28	.814	
FBI25	.813	
FBI26	.793	
FBI24	.784	
FBI27	.782	
FBI17	.778	
FBI29	.751	
FBI18	.734	
FBI15	.729	
FBI16	.703	
FBI5		.828
FBI3		.825
FBI1		.804
FBI2		.633
FBI6		.562

Factor Extraction of Facebook Perception Variable and its Items

Factor	Loading	
	1	2
FBI28	.814	
FBI25	.813	
FBI26	.793	
FBI24	.784	
FBI27	.782	
FBI17	.778	
FBI29	.751	

FBI18	.734	
FBI15	.729	
FBI16	.703	
FBI5		.828
FBI3		.825
FBI1		.804
FBI2		.633
FBI6		.562

Factor Extraction of Online Political Participation Variable and its Items

Factor	loading	
	1	2
OPP6	.886	
OPP4	.871	
OPP7	.841	
OPP3	.828	
OPP5	.814	
OPP1	.754	
OPP15	.736	
OPP10	.714	
OPP12	.690	
OPP20		.855
OPP21		.832
OPP18		.722
OPP22		.715
OPP17		.697
OPP19		.661
OPP25		.640

Factor Extraction of Online Political participation Variable and its Items

Factor	Loading	
	1	
PI3	.900	
PI2	.899	
PI6	.817	
PI5	.816	
PI1	.787	
PI4	.780	

PI7	.709
PI8	.618

Appendix E

Result of items with High and Low Reliability

Construct	Items	Cronbach's alpha	Number of items with low reliability	number of items with high reliability
Facebook Usage (FBU)	20	0.888	2	18
Facebook Intensity (FBI)	29	0.906	7	22
Facebook Perception (FBI)	17	0.897	0	17
Online Political Participation (OPP)	27	0.919	2	25
Political Interest (PI)	8	0.916	0	8

Appendix F

Descriptive Analysis of latent Variables

Constructs	N	No of Items	Mean	Std. Dev.
Facebook Usage	473	20	3.57	.631
Facebook Intensity	473	29	3.50	.709
Facebook Perception	473	17	3.49	.720
Online Political Participation	473	27	3.20	.831
Political Interest	473	08	3.84	.637

Appendix G

Common Method variance

Total Variance Explained					
Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared	
				Loadings	
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance
1	15.056	14.907	14.907	15.056	14.907
2	5.890	5.832	20.739	5.890	5.832
3	4.176	4.134	24.873	4.176	4.134

4					
	3.661	3.624	28.498	3.661	3.624
5					
	3.123	3.092	31.590	3.123	3.092
6	2.779	2.752	34.342		
7	2.610	2.584	36.925		
8	2.216	2.194	39.119		
9	2.143	2.122	41.241		
10	1.958	1.939	43.180		
11	1.843	1.825	45.005		
12	1.799	1.781	46.786		
13	1.569	1.553	48.339		
14	1.566	1.551	49.890		
15	1.472	1.458	51.347		
16	1.455	1.440	52.787		
17	1.367	1.353	54.141		
18	1.319	1.306	55.447		
19	1.294	1.281	56.728		
20	1.241	1.228	57.956		
21	1.231	1.219	59.175		
22	1.153	1.142	60.316		
23	1.123	1.112	61.428		
24	1.099	1.088	62.516		
25	1.053	1.043	63.559		
26	1.029	1.019	64.579		
27	.973	.964	65.542		
28	.964	.955	66.497		
29	.955	.945	67.442		
30	.919	.910	68.353		
31	.888	.879	69.232		
32	.866	.857	70.090		
33	.859	.851	70.940		

34	.834	.826	71.767
35	.830	.822	72.589
36	.817	.809	73.397
37	.791	.784	74.181
38	.766	.758	74.939
39	.753	.746	75.685
40	.745	.738	76.422
41	.734	.727	77.150
42	.711	.704	77.854
43	.691	.684	78.538
44	.677	.670	79.208
45	.654	.647	79.855
46	.624	.618	80.473
47	.620	.614	81.087
48	.607	.601	81.689
49	.598	.592	82.281
50	.575	.569	82.850
51	.570	.564	83.414
52	.553	.548	83.962
53	.540	.535	84.497
54	.533	.528	85.025
55	.526	.521	85.546
56	.506	.501	86.047
57	.502	.497	86.544
58	.493	.488	87.032
59	.487	.482	87.514
60	.473	.469	87.983
61	.462	.457	88.440
62	.444	.439	88.879
63	.437	.432	89.312
64	.421	.416	89.728
65	.418	.414	90.142
66	.413	.409	90.550
67	.398	.394	90.944
68	.395	.391	91.335
69	.388	.384	91.719
70	.383	.379	92.098
71	.374	.370	92.469
72	.363	.360	92.829
73	.359	.355	93.184

74	.354	.351	93.535
75	.344	.341	93.875
76	.339	.336	94.211
77	.324	.320	94.532
78	.317	.314	94.846
79	.310	.307	95.153
80	.306	.303	95.456
81	.290	.287	95.743
82	.288	.285	96.028
83	.277	.275	96.302
84	.273	.271	96.573
85	.266	.264	96.837
86	.261	.258	97.095
87	.258	.256	97.351
88	.242	.239	97.590
89	.238	.236	97.826
90	.231	.229	98.055
91	.224	.222	98.277
92	.219	.216	98.493
93	.211	.209	98.702
94	.194	.192	98.894
95	.191	.189	99.083
96	.184	.182	99.265
97	.164	.163	99.427
98	.159	.158	99.585
99	.152	.151	99.736
100	.146	.145	99.880
101	.121	.120	100.000

Appendix H

Discriminant validity assessment after generating second order (Loadings and Cross-loadings)

Constructs		Facebook Intensity	Facebook Perception	Online Political Participation
Facebook Intensity	FBAF	0.998	0.016	0.042
	FBEC	0.604	-0.061	0.003

Facebook Perception	FBPA	0.011	0.711	0.272
	FBPF	0.046	0.669	0.195
	FBPP	-0.024	0.722	0.401
	FBPSSI	0.022	0.740	0.305
Online Political Participation	OPPO	0.043	0.366	0.868
	OPPP	0.030	0.406	0.907

